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ART. I. *Essays and Notes on Husbandry and Rural Affairs.* By J. B. Bordley, 8vo. pp. 600. Printed at Philadelphia. Imported by Mawman, London. Price 10s. 6d. Boards.

THOUGH perfection be not attainable in any earthly pursuit, yet a communication of fortunate discoveries and of successful efforts, in every department of science and industry, certainly tends to a gradual approximation towards this desirable point. Even in agriculture, in which the practices of one country will not all correspond with the circumstances of another, something may be learnt by comparing different modes and processes. English and American farmers are in very dissimilar situations; yet it will be advantageous to them, in some respects, *to tear a leaf out of each other's book.* A laudable curiosity at least is indulged, when practical information is not to be obtained; and the philosophic mind is gratified by contemplating the manner in which soil, climate, and local circumstances diversify the same profession.

These remarks appear to be applicable to the English reader of the work before us; in which the object of the author is not either to instruct or to amuse the European, but to furnish a mass of useful information for his countrymen, the American farmers. He thus speaks of himself:

'On the turn of middle age and whilst gradually quitting public employments, the author sat down on a farm in Maryland, and became enthusiastically fond of husbandry. Farmers in the neighbourhood informed him of their modes of practice; but they taught him nothing of the principles of the art. Whilst they knew how to practise in the manner common to the country, he knew neither principles nor practice; but began however with observing their practices, which he continued to imitate; until gaining information from a number of instructive experiments, he was encouraged to deviate from some of them; and became more and more assured that great improvements might be made by professed farmers, in this first of all employments, if they could be brought to relinquish the worst of their habits.'

Mr. Bordley began by writing little essays, and dispersing them among his friends; and these compositions, with others yet remaining in manuscript, form the present work. If, he says, 'fortunately it should induce improvements and better attentions for *assuring* competency with domestic and social comforts, his first wish will be accomplished.'

The essays treat on the following subjects:

'Systems and Rotations—Grass-rotations—Grain-rotations—Design for a Grain Farm—Grain and Meadow-rotation—Farm-yard—Clover—Wheat on Clover—Beans—Maize and Wheat-culture—Hemp—Farm-yard Manure—Barns—Cattle Stalls—Cattle Pastured and Soiled; Kept and Fattened—Observations on Cattle, Sheep, and Hogs—Maize and Potatoes as Fallow-Crops and Fattening Materials—Fences—Treading Wheat—Method of Registering Experiments—Principles of Vegetation—Necessaries best Product of Land—Family Salt—Rice—Country Habitations—Ice-Houses—Intimations on new Sources of Trade, &c.—Potato-Spirit and Beer—Diet in Rural Economy—Gypsum Manure—State Society of Agriculture—Notes and Intimations.'

The first paper commences with an account of rotations of grass crops, occasioned by the application of Mr. Rigal, (a gentleman from Manheim in Germany, who had settled on a small farm of 56 acres, near Philadelphia) to Mr. B., to know in what way he could best cultivate his land. As labour is scarce in America, and hirelings are managed with difficulty, even by the most experienced husbandman, Mr. R. was advised not to cultivate grain, but to confine his attention to grass crops. He was directed to permit no horse, ox, cow, or other beast, to graze on pasture, but to keep them in stables throughout the year *. Hence there will be little need of division fences; and the fields, having only one general inclosing fence, will exhibit a beautiful *unit* of grass, only dotted here and there with clumps of trees: which are recommended to be the locust, sugar-maple, black-mulberry, black-walnut, dog-wood, and sassafras, none of which materially injure the grass. The propriety of a grove of sugar-maples, to the extent of two or three acres, is particularly suggested; because this grove will not only afford a comfortable sheltered walk, but will yield sugar for family uses, to the amount of 200 lbs. per acre.—The rotations here advised consist of changes of rye, clover, and timothy-grass; which are illustrated by particular tables.—This mode of practice may suggest no useful hints to the English Farmer: but, in order to prevent him from regretting that *his* groves do not produce maple-sugar, maple-wine, nor the spirit of sugar, *Rum*, we

* This will appear to our farmers to be singular advice.

may transcribe (from a subsequent note) the remark on the superior excellence of *Beer*; which is said to be 'the most wholesome of all made drinks, the chief in all countries where robust health is most conspicuous. It keeps labourers in steady good heart, without producing that irregularity which is commonly the effect of Rum.' At p. 395, also, Mr. B. terms it 'an article conducive to sobriety, health, vigor, and contentment.'

Though the plan of an American Farm-yard, &c. may afford rather matter of amusement than ground for practice in this country, yet some hints may be collected from it, and turned to advantage by intelligent persons. We therefore transcribe the sketch of a design of this kind:

'A FARM YARD.

'*Homestead and Buildings.*

'It is an especial object in this design that the whole yard, and its buildings, should be in view from the mansion; and that they be constructed at a proper distance, neither too near nor too far from the mansion. The food should be near to the housed live stock, for readily distributing it. The yard ought to be compact; and the doors of the buildings, and the gates of the yard, seen from the mansion.

'The *homestead* includes this yard; together with its stackyard, the garden, nursery, orchard, and some acres for occasional use: such as the letting mares, or sick beasts run in, at liberty. There must be

Mansion.	Stercories.
Kitchen, Oven, and Ash-hole.	Barn.
Poultry-house, and yard.	Sheep-house, and yard.
Wood-yard.	Chaise-house and stable.
Laboratory (Labórature)	Waggon and cart-house.
Milk-house.	Implements of husbandry, house.
Ice-house.	Workshop.
Pigeon-house.	Herdsmen's hovel.
Cloacas.	Granary.
Family-yard.	Stable, for farm.
Pump.	Area of Bridge and vault.
Watering troughs.	Bees.
Sow and Pig sties.	Treading-floor.
Cow-house.	Straw ricks.
Boiling-house.	Hay ricks.
Hogs.	Root pits.'

A plate is given at the end of the work, to illustrate these particulars; from which it is evident that a Trans-Atlantic farmer must produce as many necessaries as it is possible for him to furnish within himself, and must depend little on foreign supply. *The Laboratory* is with him a necessary appendage. In this house, meat is cut up, salted, and smoked; lard and tallow are dried; candles and soap are made; and

washing, ironing, spinning, carding, dying, brewing, and purifying salt, &c. are performed.

The *Ice-house* is recommended to be near the milk-house, in order that ice may be at hand to harden the butter as it is taken from the churn. Ice has been discovered to be of singular utility in preserving Newcastle salmon for the London market; and, as ice-houses are very cheaply constructed, may it not be of service, on English Farms, to have buildings of this kind, not merely for the purpose of hardening butter, but for that of keeping fresh meat in summer? *

'Butter (it is here remarked) is the better for having never been in *water*, or at all wetted, even in clearing it from butter-milk. If with *slow motion* for mixing it with very *pure fine salt*, and slowly pressing out the butter-milk, the butter be never touched with water, but instead of cooling it with water, ice be placed round and under it, so however as not to wet it, and all this be done rather on a cold marble table, the butter may be expected to be greatly superior, in *colour*, in *closeness*, and in *flavor*. But it ought not to be beat, nor even pressed or squeezed with a *quick* motion. Every motion ought to be *slow*, in making butter. For getting out the butter-milk, sprinkle it with very fine salt, and after gently mixing it in, let it stand a while before the fluid is to be discharged. It is said, there is no making fine paste, but on *marble* tables; which are *cleaner*, *sweeter*, and *cooler* than any wooden tables; and that French pastry cooks use *marble*. The reasons are as strong for nice *butter makers* using marble. A slab of *polished marble*, on a stout oaken frame, may be first made cold with ice; and a drawer close under the slab, filled with ice, would continue the cold, whilst the butter is cleansing.'

To the very antient practice of *treading out corn*, mentioned in Scripture, the Americans are very partial. Mr. Bordley thus delivers his opinion on this subject, under the article *Treading-floor*:

'Though but *six* to eight horses should tread on it, yet it ought not to be of a less diameter than 80 or 90 feet. But the track and bed of wheat is narrowed to 12 or 15 feet. I was long and greatly prejudiced against *treading* wheat. But experiencing the advantages of getting out the crops with *speed*, and very *clean* when on a permanent well preserved floor, with horses gently trotted in ranks, distant and airy each rank from the others, the preference in my opinion is in favour of treading, over the most expert thrashing with flails. So much so that, considering the greater opportunities of

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* May not some speculating tradesman avail himself of this hint, to supply the London market with exquisitely fresh butter in the summer months, by packing it in ice? Should this be the case, we expect that our breakfast table shall be supplied *gratis*, for having suggested the thought. Rev.

pilfering,

pilfering, and lengthy troublesomenesss of thrashers, I would prefer treading to having my large crops thrashed for nothing.'

He farther observes,

'To hire thrashers or put my labourers to thrash it out with flails, the time spent would give abundant opportunity for thieving, which is avoided by the speedy method of treading, when in about a fortnight three thousand bushels may be secured, instead of near a hundred days that flails would require.'

Clover is strongly recommended as an ameliorating crop; and here the author's remarks apply as well to Europe as to America. Clover, he says, 'is so essential that without it the soil, the cattle, and the corn-crops would greatly suffer. Its power of amelioration is not very inferior to that by dung. In some respects it is preferable. With dung, innumerable seeds of weeds are carried on and sown on the fields: not so clover, when the seed has been properly cleaned. Clover is the best preparative for a crop of wheat. Dung inclines wheat to run more into straw than full grain. Wheat on clover has the best grain and the fullest crop.'—We have often seen these observations verified in our own country.

An idea is suggested respecting a mode of gathering and cleaning clover-seed, which may merit general attention: 'The heads of clover are rippled off, by a simple machine moved by a horse, at the rate of 5 acres of them in a day. The heads are carried to an oil mill, having two stones rolled in the manner of a tanner's bark-stones, which separates from the haulm five bushels a day.'

The essay on *Hemp* contains the following remarks, by which it will be seen that Mr. B. prefers the culture of this crop to that of tobacco:

'The extensive usefulness of hemp, the little interference of its culture with the other work of farmers in America; and *when water-rotted*, the ease with which it is prepared for *rope*, as well as the general certainty of the crop with a good price, led me to admire it in preference to other uncommon articles of crop.'—

'If the ground be good and well prepared, no crop is more certain than hemp, sowed in time, and when the soil is moist. But, how uncertain is the tobacco crop! Failure of plants from frost, drought, or fly; want of seasonable weather for planting; destruction by the ground-worm, web-worm, horn-worm; buttoning low, for want of rain; curling or frenching, from too much rain; house-burning or funking whilst curing; frost before housed; heating in bulk or in the hogshead; inspection, culling, &c. Cultivating tobacco cleans, but exposes soil to exhalation and washing away. It is only about a month that it shelters the ground: but hemp shades it from May till about the first of August; and from early August it would be advantageously sheltered with a growth of buckwheat, till this blos-

soms; and then during a temperate state of heat, it is plowed in as a manure.'—

'A planter gaining 20 hogsheads of tobacco from 20 acres of ground, value 800 dollars, might expect 12000 or 16000 lbs. of hemp from the same ground, value 1000 or 1200 dollars. But, if the income from the hemp should be a fourth less than from the tobacco crop, yet I would, on several accounts, prefer the hemp culture.'

It may amuse our agriculturists to read a description of a Pennsylvanian barn; and they may speculate on the hint which is annexed respecting Manure:

'Farmers in Pennsylvania have a commendable spirit for building good barns, which are mostly of stone. On the ground floor are stalls in which their horses and oxen are fed with hay, cut-straw, and rye-meal; but not always their other beasts. Roots are seldom given to their live-stock, and are too little thought of. The second floor, with the roof, contains their sheaves of grain, which are thrashed on this floor. A part of their hay is also here stored. Loaded carts and waggons are driven in, on this second floor; with which the surface of the earth is there level; or else a bridge is built up to it, for supplying the want of height in the bank, the wall of one end of the house being built close to the bank of a hill cut down. For giving room to turn waggons within the house, it is built thirty-six to forty feet wide; and the length is given that may be requisite to the design or size of the farm. But if the waggon is driven directly into the barn, it may be as directly drawn back without turning it—a great saving of room; and the house need not be so wide as for the sake of turning waggons in it. If waggons carry more to the barn at a time, yet carts are brisker: their loads are shot down in an instant, and they turn short. Waggons are tediously unloaded.

'I have seen a barn, in Chester county, Pennsylvania, which had a cellar under a floor of planks on joists, on which horses and oxen stood; and their dung was daily shovelled into the cellar. The farmer said, this dung is the better for being thus kept *dry:* but, may it not be there *too dry?* Dung drowned with water must be much injured. But if a large mass of dung receives no more water than what falls on its surface from the clouds, and is well sheltered from the sun, is it then injured? Is it better or worse for being rotten before it is applied to the ground as a manure? If first rotted, it will spread and mix with the soil more perfectly. If but partly rotted, and then spread and plowed into the ground, instantly as it is carted out, will it not be stronger—more powerful in opening and enriching the soil? It there finishes its heat and fermentation, which precede and bring forward rottenness, whilst it is in the ground: provided its lying too thinly dispersed or scattered in the ground is not against its fermenting.'

Of the advantages of *Soiling Cattle*, in preference to pasturing them, much is said; and the objection that it creates peculiar labour gives the author an occasion for declaiming against the dissipation of the American Farmer.

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'In many parts of America (he says) are idle improvident people, masters of farms, who spend their time in taverns or other places of wasteful amusement: any where rather than at home. These haunts are at the expense of their *domestic* happiness. Sooner or later they bring on them debts, wants and grating claims of creditors. Such a people can never be brought to soil cattle, or at all improve their farms. Where is solid comfort to be found if not at *home?* The meanness, the selfishness and the folly of these *husbands*, *fathers*, or *masters*, are conspicuous, degrading and shameful; who, regardless of *wife*, *child*, and *dependents* claiming their protection, their affections and their attentions, and even regardless of the true interests of their precious selves, fly from their own happiness in the moment when they mount their horses and hurry to the tavern, the race, nine-pins, billiards, excess upon excess of toddy, and the most nonsensical and idle chat, accompanied with exclamations and roarings, brutal and foreign to common sense and manners as the mind of wisdom can conceive of depraved man. Had these men, so deficient in character, been trained but a few years among the orderly, thoughtful good farmers of some neighbouring district, they would have learnt valuable lessons for conducting their farms, themselves, and their domestic affairs, greatly to their comfort and advantage, and to the comfort due to their families and dependents; to whom they owe more than they are accustomed to feel for them. There are on the other hand, those who with industry aim at providing for their families, but it is not with an honest mind and fairness of reputation. The strength of these is in low cunning. If indeed they wish to be perfect in that detestable of all qualities, *country-cunning*, they need not go far from home; unless for the sake of embellishing the satanical talent with some variety. They might then go among the thoughtless class of people in neighbourhoods distinguished for more of this base quality than of provident industry, fairness and honest candour.'

On the subject of *Cattle*, Mr. B. very sensibly remarks:

'Farmers are imposed on by butchers; who by praises prevail on them to prefer the breeds having large bones, and that are deep fore-quartered heavy looking beasts; whose fore quarters outweigh their hind quarters, with the aid of their massy scimitar-like ribs. Why do butchers recommend this beast of bone? Why do farmers comply with their subtle recommendation? Is it because their appearance is agreeable to the farmer's passion for what is *big?* The choicest beef is on beasts having small bones. The Bakewell cattle and sheep have not the heavy appearances of the clumsy big boned, and flat-sided beasts preferred by retailers of meat: but they are greatly superior in their meat, and in cheap feeding.'—

'The first great error in improvers of live-stock, in America, is in their passion for the *largest kinds*. The *largest* and the *smallest breeds* are the very worst; and ought to be avoided in cattle, and generally in all animals. The huge big boned dray-horse, what is he on a farm? the scimitar-ribbed, flat-sided lubberly big-legged cattle, what are they other than expensive masses of unimportant

bone, with an inferior portion of coarse meat dearly obtained in the feeding.'

Respecting *Hogs*, as well as in *Horned Cattle*, Mr.B. is not an advocate for immense carcases: but his countrymen do not all agree with him; and they allow the qualities of their beasts to have a preponderating influence even in political matters:

'It is said by farmers in Pennsylvania, that lumps of fat of the coarse flabby meat hogs soonest cloy labourers. This may continue to be an irresistible motive with some classes of folks; when to others it will be disgusting and contemptible. Yet if we can oppose the 715lb. hog by one of 716, though it ſhould be a mass of inferior meat, we shall have a something to give us consequence—the biggest hog! At a Nisi Prius court, in Maryland, a person was introduced to me, whose horse had lately won a race. This victory, as I was told, recommended him, though not before thought of, as being qualified to represent the people in their legislature. An election soon followed; and the horse—if you please his influence—carried the election for his master, all hollow. So might 716 of even the coarsest flabby pork succeed against 715 of better meat. Quality with some country people is unimportant.'

Who could imagine that apprehensions of a scarcity of timber, and even of fire-wood, already so affect the mind of the American husbandman, as to induce him to turn his thoughts towards obtaining permanent live fences instead of those of wood? Mr. B. would have a monument erected to the memory of the man who, on the main road near Newcastle, set a pattern to his countrymen, of an excellent *thorn-hedge fence.*

From the author's essay on *the Principles of Vegetation*, we must content ourselves with two short extracts; though the whole is not unworthy of perusal. In his remarks on Manure, he says:

'Manure promotes the growth of plants, by its fermentation and warmth opening the soil for readily admitting humidity from the air with its nutritious contents; and for facilitating the extension of the tender shoots of roots: or by attracting moisture with its combinations from the earth and atmosphere: or by its depositing matter, that if not of itself nutritious to plants, at least promotes the access of such as is nutritious to it. It is said ground is sometimes exhausted by a stimulus from manures. The plant is a more likely subject of stimulation, as having life; and a stimulus to the plant may be a mean of promoting its growth. It also is said, lime exhausts land by its stimulus. It indeed has injured ground when applied in too great quantities; which tends to reduce soil, in some degree, to a mortar: and the caustic quality of lime when applied immoderately may, so will salt, destroy plants, and also a part of their nutrition deposited in the soil. But in fact, it is nearly altogether repetitions of exhausting crops taken from the ground which effect the mischief. The farmer gives once, and takes for ever. If

lime

lime exhausts ground by destroying the nutrition deposited there, it must be without having promoted any growth in the plants. The injury done by lime, is said to be from stimulating the ground, and with a kind of violence forcing it to yield great crops; whereby the soil is exhausted: and indeed at length it is exhausted—by the crops—not by the manure. It is better to give the ground a moderate portion of lime at a time, and apply it more frequently.'—

'Plants receiving a large portion of their nourishment immediately from the air, rather fertilize than impoverish soil, where they are not carried off from the ground, or suffered to run to seed. There are strong marks of plants meliorating ground by their leaves and other offal dropt, and probably from their perspiration; especially of the pulse kind. Grain and all seeds rob the earth more than bulbous or tap rooted fruit does.'

In the subsequent essay, Mr. B. pronounces *Corn* to be the *best* produce of land, preferring it to *Silk* and *Wine*. He quotes, in justification of his opinion, the authority of Mr. Hume, who 'reckoned it bad policy in Britain to obstruct the use of French wines; when they ought rather to be encouraged in the application of their *labour in making more wines*, by the free use of them in England; because each new acre of vineyard planted in France, for supplying Britain with wine, would make it requisite for the French to take the produce of a British acre sown in wheat, in order to subsist themselves; "and it is evident, he adds, we have thereby got the command of the *better commodity*."

The chief articles of American export are thus enumerated:

'Probably, the chief export of produce in the maritime country between Connecticut and James River, will be *flour*: of South Carolina, Georgia, and the Floridas, *rice*: North Carolina, *naval stores* and *maize*: Massachusetts and other parts of New England, *fish*, *cattle*, and *horses*: Mississippi, *lumber*, *iron*, *hemp*; in ships built there, and never returning are sold abroad.'

Bay-salt is recommended by Mr. B. for family purposes, in preference to *blown* or boiled salt, such as is in common use with us; and he assigns these reasons:—that bay-salt has more of the spirit of salt which is so essential for keeping provisions, gives an agreeable flavour, and is more weighty in the bushel. The following hint also merits the attention of all housewives; viz. to refine and dry salt to a powder, before it be used to preserve meat:

'When salt is applied in a *powder*, it instantly strikes into the meat, effects its purpose, and goes further than if it was coarse. Meat ought to be *struck* with *powdered* salt, in the moment when it becomes cool; and not left as is common, for hours longer even in warm weather. Tendency to putrefaction soon commences; and long before it is discernible. Salting should precede this tendency, and

and so prevent it; for salt cannot so effectually *stop* putrefaction, as it can *prevent* its commencement.'

We must pass over Mr. Bordley's discussions respecting *Rice*, *Country habitations*, and *Ice-houses;* with his *Intimations* on Manufactures, the Fruits of Agriculture, and on New Sources of Trade, interfering with Products of the United States in Foreign Markets. The subsequent essays, also, on *Potatoe-Spirit and Beer*, and *on Diet in Rural Economy*, we shall omit to notice, because they are for the most part composed from British publications.

The author's general cautions in regard to Country Cookery (p. 415) are excellent:

'Soups are never to be filled up or have even a drop of water, hot nor cold, added; and are never to boil briskly. They are to be long, long over the fire, *simmering* rather than boiling. And all soups having roots or herbs, are to have the meat laid on the bottom of the pan, with a good lump of butter. The herbs and roots being cut small are laid on the meat. It is then *covered close* and set on a *very slow fire*. This draws out all the virtue of the roots and herbs, and turns out a good *gravy*, with a fine *flavour*, from what it would be if the water was put in at first. When the gravy is almost dried up, *then* fill the pan with water; and when it begins to boil, take off the fat.—Never *boil* fish; but only *simmer*, till enough.—*Beef* quick boiled, is thereby hardened: *simmer* or slow boil it, in not too much water.—Veal and poultry are to be dusted with flour, and put into the kettle in *cold water*. Cover and boil *slow as possible*, skimming the water clean. It is the worst of faults, to boil any meat fast.—In baking pies, a *quick* oven *well closed*, prevents falling of the crust.'

The next essay, on *Gypsum*, consists of a variety of questions addressed to several American farmers, with their answers in favour of gypsum as a manure.

A proposal was made to the Senate and House of Representatives of Pennsylvania, for incorporating, by an act of the Legislature, a State Agricultural Society; the outlines of which Mr. B. has detailed: but the application, we are informed, was rejected by husbandmen, who were principally to be benefited by the Institution.

In the concluding essay, intitled *Notes and Intimations*, we find various receipts and memoranda respecting pickling and drying beef, making bread, biscuit, and vinegar, curing fish in the sun, salting and curing herrings, making candles, distilling, making and potting butter, &c. &c. &c. which must be of great use in the families of American farmers, and assist them in the profitable management of their rural affairs.

A section in this essay is devoted to the subject of *first impressions;* in which is maintained the importance of the earliest attention

attention to children, in order to assure to them 'the virtues with happy manners;'—and another section treats on *the Improvement of the Mind for Rural Life*, with which we shall finish our extracts:

"Of scientifical pursuits, the most liberal, the most honorable, the happiest, and what probably will be the most successful employment for a man in easy circumstances, (particularly in country life,) is the *study of nature*, including natural history and natural philosophy; and therefore to this important object a principal attention should be given in educating youth who have the means of applying to these instructive and comfortable pursuits, when it may be without interfering with the means necessary to his support. Every man finds vacant moments from his ordinary business, which cannot be better filled than by such attentions as lead to the improvement of his understanding and elevate his mind to admire, more and more, the astonishing works of the Creator; and thus is real religion befriended.

"All the *arts*, from whence is derived all that tends to the security and comfort of mankind, depend upon the knowledge of the *powers of nature* wherewith we become conversant; and the only possible way of assuring and increasing the conveniencies and comfors of life, of guarding against inconveniencies and vexations, to which all are subject, and of enlarging the powers of man, is through a further *acquaintance with the powers of nature!*"—From Doctor *Priestley*, a very little altered. Some instruction in geometry and mechanics would also be advantageous in country life.

'Farmers who do not lay the hand to the plow, often want they know not what: time hangs heavy on them: they feel dissatisfied, restless: a void surrounds them. Employment of any sort would give them relief. But they mount the horse, and leave their *family* and the inviting calls of an improvable landed estate or farm, to seek amusement in riding to and fro; sometimes unwarily popping into taverns. But though time is thus passed away, they gain no solid or permanent satisfaction, much less any improvement of the mind: and to be sure the farm is not improved; nor its work well done. Were these masters of farms fortunately led by their parents to taste the sweets of such an education as Dr. *Priestley* recommends, the *study of nature*, they would never want soothing and nourishing food to the mind; and from their being employed in inquiries concerning the wonderful works of the *Supreme Being*, a sound and rational piety would be increased and confirmed in them. The book of nature far surpasses books of clumsy art; whilst the wordy works of misled and misleading instructors convey no profitable knowledge, and are insignificant to common sense, and to good minds wishing to be impressed with the knowledge of plain truths, and improved in whatever is amiable and promotive of good. The comforts held out by the gospel of *Christ*, confirm the hope derived from contemplations on *nature*: and there is a perfect agreement between the pure principles of the *gospel*, and the laws of *nature*.'

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While there can be no doubt that this work will be an acceptable present to the author's countrymen, we have as little hesitation in saying that it will procure reputation for him in Europe. It evinces, indeed, that Mr. Bordley is a man of sound judgment, as well as of considerable reading and experience. Convinced of the superior importance of agriculture to the United States, compared with manufactures and commerce, he urges the Americans to pursue the former in preference to the latter, in spite of all the splendid illusions which may be presented to the eye and to the imagination. His advice is justified by history, but states will never regard it while they are infatuated by the love of riches. Commerce feeds the passions, and agriculture is too tame a pursuit for dissipated people.

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ART. II. *The Rural Philosopher;* or, French Georgics. A Didactic Poem. Translated from the Original of the Abbé Delille; intitled *L'Homme des Champs.* By John Maunde. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Kearsley. 1801.

THE difficulty of translating poetry has always been acknowleged; yet this concession has not rendered criticism less rigid. Mediocrity in an original writer is not more insupportable than in a translator; and a feeble copy of a fine picture, or of a beautiful poem, is equally contemned. Nearly all our best translators and imitators have been great originals: as, for instances, Dryden, Pope, and Rowe. When passages occur which the different idiom of the two languages makes it impossible to render closely, or even intelligibly, native genius is required to supply equivalents; and, seizing the *spirit* of the passage, we should throw aside the *words*, and express the *idea* as a thought of our own.

As many parts of the production before us have been either copied or imitated from our own poets, it is difficult to transfuse them again into English, to the satisfaction of those who have often contemplated them in their pristine state; and however well a translator may have performed his task, the same allowance should be made for evaporation, as in pouring liquors out of one vessel into another. Indulgence in such cases is claimed by Mr. Maunde, and, we think, with reason.

In the translation of the author's preface, we were rather alarmed in the first period at seeing *Monsieur l'Abbé* rendered *Mr. the Abbé*, which is not English: but this is a slight error, which we should have passed over if we had found any thing more important to point out. We observed, however, only a few

few other Gallicisms; as in p. xxv. 'the *lecture* of the Georgics,' for *the perusal*; p. xxviii. the word *people* used with a verb in the singular number; p. xxxi. 'a translation *given*,' for performed, or executed; &c.

As the plan of this elegant poem has already been detailed in our analysis of the original *, we have now only to consider the translation; and on this point we must inform our readers that the numbers are, in general, flowing; that the poet's thoughts are not often inaccurately rendered; and that, though the elegance of expression cannot be expected to equal that of a bard so renowned for harmony of composition, yet this version will convey to the English reader many of his beauties, and a satisfactory general idea of the whole work.

In Canto I. after having recommended the beauties of nature to the study of contemplative minds, in preference to the folly, depravity, meanness, and disappointment resulting from a town-life, the bard says:

'Try then to leave the city's peopled waste,
And form, by soft degrees, a rural taste:
Let town-bred projects to the country yield;
Adorn your garden; cultivate your field:
And though, while rustic toils your mind employ,
You miss, perhaps, the sage's purer joy,
Self-love will soon the vacant place supply,
And view its offspring with a parent's eye.'

He then dilates on the choice of country amusements, and on the sage's enjoyments in Spring; when,

'Farewell the gloomy screen's seclusive fold!
Farewell to dusty books, and lecture cold!
Nature's rich volume, to the mind display'd,
Invites the Muse—and be her call obey'd!'

In a short description of the seasons, he says, speaking of a summer's evening;

'Then loves the eye, that shrunk before the day,
To drink refreshment from the moon's pale ray;
When modest Cynthia, clad in silver light,
Expands her beauty on the brow of Night,
Sheds her soft beams upon the mountain-side,
Peeps through the wood, and quivers on the tide.'

Then follows a description of domestic amusements in bad weather,—backgammon, chess, reading: next, Spring Amusements,—incitements to generosity—rural industry—rustic poverty relieved, &c. Here (p. 25.) we must stop to censure the translator's promiscuous use of the singular and plural pronouns, in

* Vol. xxxiii. N. S. for 1800, p. 470.

lines

lines which are otherwise beautiful. Advising the philosopher to let his children be his almoners in the distribution of his charities, he says;

'Oft with thy bounties, too, *thy* presence show,
And thus enhance the blessings *you* bestow;
And let *thy* children there, with timid air,
To timid want the secret offering bear:
But most *thy* daughter, wearing on her face
The first of beauties, Virtue's modest grace,
Should to the wretched like an angel shine,
And pay her first-fruit vows at Bounty's shrine.
Thy offspring thus, with whom *thy* features grow,
Thy mind, and manners, shall in image show:
Their richest portion *your* example gives;
And, rear'd by *you*, their infant virtue lives.
Ye worldly men, disgust that dearly buy,
These pleasures cōntĕmplate with jealous eye.'

Mr. Maunde has also taken a liberty with the accentuation of the word *contĕmplate*, which is not authorized by Johnson, nor by the *norma loquendi*.

The *Village Pastor* is beautifully painted in the original, and the translator has done justice to the delineation:—but we must hasten from this first Canto, which abounds with beauties, ad direct our attention to the second.

Here are described the wonders of the modern cultivation of lands:

'No more the simple power our fathers knew
She deigns each ancient maxim to pursue;
Like some enchantress, with her wagic wand,
In treasures new she decks the smiling land;
Subdues the rock, and clothes the mountain's face,
Fattens the soil, and gives its offspring grace;
Frees from their chain the long-imprison'd tides,
And streams astonish'd to each other guides:
Her magic power, triumphant over times,
Together blends or seasons, worlds, or climes.
When primal man first till'd with fruitless toil,
No means were known to fertilize his soil:
Without distinction, or on mount or plain,
His careless hand dispers'd the useful grain;
Till taught at length, by Time's instructing aid,
Each tree its country knew; each soil its seed.'

In this canto, we know not very well what the Abbé Delille himself means by *sables tranchans*, which Mr. M. has very faithfully translated, *cutting sands*.

Strong *eulogia* are bestowed, in this book, on English farming; and, in the notes, we have a history of the introduction of artificial grasses: as clover, sainfoin, trefoil, and their different

different kinds. The improvement of domestic animals is also noted; and exotics are recommended where the soil and climate are favourable.

The word *Beastial*, used more than once for cattle, is not a happy coinage. There is no authority for its use, and it conveys a more unpleasant idea than was meant.

The beauty of rural scenes is now described, with their productions:

' Such joys I wish'd, ere life should quite expire,
And hope already, wing'd by my desire,
Though small the heritage she wish'd to gain,
Install'd my fancy in her proud domain.
While bowers, and groves and orchards round me wav'd,
What verdant banks my winding streamlet lav'd!
How dear my flow'rets, and my cooling shade!
What fatt'ning flocks along my pasture stray'd!
All laugh'd around me, and my fancy dreams
O'erflow'd with fields of corn and milky streams!
Short-liv'd chimeras! impotent and vain!
The broils of state that o'er my country reign,
Have left me nothing but my sylvan reed.
Adieu, my flocks, my fruits, and flowery mead!
Ye groves of Pindus, shades for ever green,
Transport me now to your poetic scene!
If Fate forbids to cultivate the plains,
To them at least I consecrate my strains.'

Canto III. begins thus in the original:

" *Que j'aime le mortel, noble dans ses penchans,*
Qui cultive à la fois son esprit et ses champs!"

This couplet is not happily rendered by Mr. Maunde:

' I love the man, *that*, noble in his views,
The culture of his land and *soul* pursues.'

To cultivate the *soul* is not an usual expression: but it appears that the translator was driven to this extremity by the word mind (*esprit*) being wanted, as a rhime, in the next line.—The ignorant and vulgar man is thus described:

' He knows not how, in secret channels fed,
From root to trunk the wandering sap is led;
Thence through the boughs its liquid virtue sends,
Till in the leaves its rising effort ends.'—
' The Sage alone, who studies Nature's laws,
Sincerest pleasures from the country draws.'

The physiology of this IIId Canto was difficult to write, and is still more difficult to translate. The Deluge and its effects demanded a Lucretius to delineate them. The course of rivers, hurricanes, volcanoes, subterraneous cities, sea wonders and productions,

ductions, and the whole range of natural history, are displayed in the poetry and the notes of this book; which will be found both amusing and instructive by young naturalists.

Canto IV. Beauties of the country depicted. Dull and frivolous rhimes ridiculed. The poet enters on a description of the grand features of Nature. South America.—Here some of the original bard's grandeur in describing the Andes is preserved in the translation.—The river of Amazons. Oroonoko. Africa. Horrors of winter near the Pole. Landscape. Life of Man. Roebuck. Horse. Description of different animals. Their qualities. Homer. Lucretius. Virgil. Plants: their instinct.—The author's reflections respecting his own country are beautiful. The ideas of an elegant and feeling writer, in describing the village in which he was born and nursed, must have some resemblance to those of preceding authors of a similar turn; and the following lines remind us of Mr. Rogers's beautiful poem on *the Pleasures of Memory*:

'SOMETIMES these scenes, in native beauty bright,
From fond remembrance gather new delight.
Rich through your strains each happy spot appears:
Yet shouldst thou add: "There rose my infant years;
"There broke the light upon my early view;
"There first my beating heart to pleasure flew;"
How does my soul the recollection prize!
Back to the distant time my fancy flies,
When, twenty years in tedious absence pass'd,
Again I saw my native fields at last.'—

'At length arriv'd, wherever rov'd my eyes,
Some fond remembrance still would love to rise.
There stood the tree, that zephyrs gently fann'd,
And swept my castles, trac'd upon the sand;
Here too the stone, my infant fingers threw,
Skimm'd o'er the lake, and leap'd and skimm'd anew.
What raptur'd bliss throughout my bosom glow'd,
When first embracing, while my tears o'erflow'd,
The hoary swain that staid my early tread,
The nurse whose milk my infant lips had fed,
And the sage pastor that my childhood led!'

Here a coincidence of thought may have occurred, free from all charge of plagiarism or imitation. Mr. Rogers's work was first published in 1792; at which time, (we believe,) the Abbé Delille, involved in the horrors of the revolution, was in prison; whence escaping in 1793, on the death of Robespierre, he went into Switzerland, where he remained several years, and wrote the present poem.

After the author's tribute to the place of his nativity, we find a description of Paris, its enchantments, and its horrors:

which last are described with ink as black as that of Mercier. Then, in imitation of Horace:

O rus, quando ego te aspiciam

he exclaims:

'Ah, when, alas! shall he whose rural strains
Teach how t'inhabit and adorn the plains,
Enjoy those scenes where most he would delight?
Oh! fields belov'd, when will ye bless my sight?
When may I, now my peaceful slumbers take,
Now with choice books amuse me as I wake;
Now deck with simple grace my rustic bowers,
And idly pass away the listless hours;
Drink sweet oblivion of life's careful lot,
Unknown to man, and man by me forgot?'

In the advice to descriptive poets, Pope's Essay on Criticism has been closely and happily imitated.

The poem is terminated by an animated Eulogium on Virgil, the original author's master and model; and it reads well in the translation,—except the last line, which is feeble. The Abbé says:

"*Veuillent les dieux sourire à mes champêtres sons!*
Et moi, puisse-je encore, pour prix de mes leçons,
Compter quelques printemps, et dans les champs que j'aime,
Vivre pour mes amis, mes livres, et moi-même!"

which lines are thus translated:

'Oh would the gods, propitious to the strain,
Grant the sole recompence I wish to gain!—
In my lov'd fields some seasons yet to tell,
And live for books, my friends, and self as well!'

On the whole, though this translation is unequal, and far from perfect, the parts which are happily executed convince us that, with less hurry and more correction, Mr. Maunde might have done greater justice to the author and to himself. As a 'first undertaking,' it by no means calls for discouragement.

Dr B....y.

Art. III. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London,* for the Year 1801. Part I. 4to. 17s. sewed. Elmsly.

Chemical *and* Mineralogical Papers.

On the Production of artificial Cold by Means of Muriate of Lime. By Mr. Richard Walker.

The scientific world is already much indebted to Mr. Walker for various communications on the means of producing artificial cold, &c.; and he now pursues the same inquiry; observing, in the commencement of this paper, that he was

incited to undertake the experiments here detailed, by the discovery of Professor Lowitz, respecting the powerful effects resulting from a mixture of muriate of lime with snow. He then gives a short account of the Professor's experiments; from which it appears that three parts of muriate of lime, with two parts of snow, mixed at the temperature of +32°, will give—50°.

'The snow, to produce the greatest effect, should be fresh fallen, dry, and light or uncompressed; and the salt perfectly dry, and reduced to very fine powder.

'Professor Lowitz's method is, to add at once the salt to the snow; the latter being previously put into a convenient vessel. As the salt produces the greatest effect whilst it retains the greatest quantity of water of crystallization, he prepares it during a freezing atmosphere, pounds it, sifts it, and keeps it in close bottles in a cold place. With a mixture of this kind, Professor Lowitz froze, in one experiment, 35 pounds of quicksilver.'

Mr. Walker relates that he attempted to repeat the Professor's experiment under similar circumstances, but that the thermometer (the temperature of the air and the materials being +32°) sunk in this instance no lower than 48°. He then cooled the materials by art to 40° below O; and, on mixing them, the thermometer sunk to 63° below O. Some of the same salt, in a crystallized state, was set out to deliquesce in the open air; and this liquor, mixed with snow, (each at the temperature of +32°) gave a cold of—20°.

The muriate of lime, used in the above experiments, had been evaporated till it crystallized in air at +32°: 'but, (says Mr. W.) an experiment with this salt, prepared as above, can be made only during a freezing atmosphere; the salt itself, thus prepared, becoming, as may be inferred from the above, and as I have myself experienced, unfit for use by a warmer temperature.' He was therefore prompted to try the effect of muriate of lime reduced to such a strength by evaporation and crystallization, as to endure being kept in a solid state throughout the year; and he had the satisfaction of finding that some of it, (which had been previously exposed to a temperature of +70° without melting,) being mixed with snow, each at the temperature of +32°, caused the thermometer to sink to —40°; and at another time, when the air was +20°, Mr. W. froze quicksilver perfectly solid by a mixture of the same materials.

In pages 127 and 128, the author gives the results of his experiments, which he divides into two series; the first, consisting of those made with the muriate of lime, intended to be used only in winter; while the second consists of those made with the same salt, prepared so as to be ready for use at any time.

This

The paper concludes with a description of the apparatus employed, and with a table exhibiting a general view of the different frigorific mixtures, composed of chemical substances with ice; similar to that which was given by Mr. W. (page 279, Phil. Trans. for 1795,) of those in which ice is not used.

In a postscript, Mr. W. asserts that ice may at pleasure be obtained either in an opaque or perfectly transparent state; the former is always more or less the case when the vessel, containing the water to be frozen, is immersed in a frigorific mixture: but the latter effect is produced when the ice is formed in the manner of a coating, on the outside of the vessel containing the frigorific mixture.

Account of the Discovery of Silver in Herland Copper Mine, Cornwall. By the Rev. Malachy Hitchins.——The silver ore discovered in Herland copper mine consists of a mixture of galena, native bismuth, grey cobalt ore, nitreous silver ore, and native silver; the latter of which is chiefly found in a capillary form. The lode or vein in which it occurs is one of those cross courses, as they are called in Cornwall, which intersect and derange the copper lodes or veins, and which are therefore considered as being of a more recent formation. Mr. Hitchins says, (p. 163):

'About one hundred and eight tons of this ore have been raised. The miners continue to sink near the same point of intersection; and seem confident that both lodes will soon become richer, because similar instances of declension and recovery have frequently occurred in the copper lodes of this mine, and because the two lodes appear to have a reciprocal influence on each other.

'Unfortunately, however, the extent of their speculation is limited by the great depth of the present workings; for forty-five fathoms have been sunk since the first discovery of the silver; and twenty, or twenty-five fathoms more, are as much as can be sunk in this mine, with its present mechanical powers of drawing the water; at which level, viz. 180 fathoms from the surface, it would be somewhat deeper than any mine in Cornwall, and about 130 fathoms below the level of the sea, at low-water mark.'

Description of the Arseniates of Copper, and of Iron, from the County of Cornwall. By the Count de Bournon.——The natural combination of the arsenic acid with copper, known by the name of arsenate of copper, has, till very lately, been exceedingly rare even in this country, where it is almost exclusively found; and, on this account, the descriptions given of it by various mineralogists have been very imperfect. Within the last two years, however, the cabinets of London have been considerably enriched by a large number of fine specimens discovered in a new copper mine, called Huel Gorland; and

the Count de Bournon has thus been enabled to investigate and describe the various crystallizations, and other appearances, assumed by this remarkable substance.

The Count observes that above twenty years have elapsed since the arseniate of copper was first discovered, either in Carrarach mine in the parish of Gwennap, or in Tincroft mine in the parish of Allogan. The matrix of the ores of these mines is a decomposed granite, in which the feldtspar has passed into the state of that argillaceous substance called kaolin. The matrix also of the one of Huel Gorland is siliceous, sometimes crystalline, and sometimes in an amorphous mass; occasionally, more or less mixed with all the known oxides of copper, with some of the oxides of iron, with grey vitreous copper ore, arsenical pyrites, and the rich deep coloured yellow copper ore: which, from its mamillated and botryoidal forms, as well as from some additional peculiarities, the Count de Bournon distinguishes from the other varieties of yellow copper ore by the name of yellow hematitic copper.

'Nature (fays the author) has established very remarkable differences between the arseniates of copper; and these take place not only in their forms, but likewise in their hardness and specific gravity. These differences arise, either from the manner in which the arsenic acid is combined with the copper, or from the different proportions in which these two substances are combined. I have been naturally led to follow the same order, and to divide the arseniates of copper into four different species: and the very interesting analysis of this substance made by Mr. Chenevix, has afforded me the most satisfactory sanction to this division. It is thus that the chemist and the naturalist, by freely uniting their labours, without jealousy or prejudice, ought in all cases to proceed, in order to attain that certainty which is the desirable recompense of their endeavours.'

The Count de Bournon then proceeds to describe the following species of the arseniates of copper:

Species 1. *Arseniate of copper in the form of an obtuse octaedron.* The most simple shape, under which this species appears, is a very obtuse octaedron, produced by the united bases of two tetraedal pyramids, with isosceles triangular planes; and this appears to be its original form. It varies in colour, from sky to Prussian blue, and frequently is of a fine grass green: it is seldom perfectly transparent; and its specific gravity is 2,881.

Species 2. *Arseniate of copper in hexaedral laminæ, with inclined sides.* This is of a fine deep emerald green colour; and the specific gravity is 2,548.

Species 3. *Arseniate of copper in the form of an acute octaedron.* The colour of this species is usually brown or bottle-green, sometimes with a yellowish or golden tint:—the average spe-

cific gravity is 4,280. The author remarks that this is not always crystallized in a determinate form, but is an absolute proteus both with respect to the different shapes in which it appears, and the various colours which it exhibits. He then notices the five following varieties: 1. Capillary, of a determinate form, which is that of a very lengthened octaedron. 2. Capillary, of an indeterminate form. 3. In crystals perfectly regular for a part of their length, and fibrous at their extremity. 4. Amianthiform. 5. Hematitiform.

Species 4. *Arseniate of copper in the form of a triedrul prism.* The colour of this is a very beautiful bluish, or deep verdigrise green; and the specific gravity is 4,280.—This species, as well as the former, is susceptible of many modifications in the figure of its crystals: but the nature of our publication will not allow us to enter into minute particulars. We must therefore here conclude the first section of Count de Bournon's paper, and proceed to the second, which treats of the arseniates of iron.

The Count observes that these arseniates are found in Muttrel mine, which is immediately contiguous to Huel Gorland. Hitherto they have been confounded with the arseniates of copper: but the result of Mr. Chenevix's Analysis (see the succeeding paper) proves, beyond a doubt, that they are composed principally of iron combined wirh the arsenic acid. The present author then describes the two following species:

Species 1. *Simple arseniate of iron.* The crystals of this species in general are perfect cubes, of a dark green, brownish, or yellowish colour. The specific gravity is 3,000.

Species 2. *Cupreous arseniate of iron.* The crystals of this species are of uncommon brilliancy, and perfectly transparent. Their form is a rhomboidal tetraedral prism, having two of its edges very obtuse, and the other two very acute. The prism is terminated at each extremity by a sharp tetraedral pyramid. The crystals seldom occur singly, but are generally grouped in an irregular manner. The colour most commonly is a very faint sky-blue; and the specific gravity is 3,400.

We doubt the propriety of this part of the Count de Bournon's arrangement; since, from Mr. Chenevix's analysis of these two arseniates, they do not appear to be distinct species, but rather varieties of the cupreous arseniate of iron. We shall more fully consider this part in our remarks on the following paper.

Analysis of the Arseniates of Copper, and of Iron, described in the preceding Paper; likewise an Analysis of the Red Octaedral Copper Ore of Cornwall; with Remarks on some particular Modes of Analysis. By Richard Chevenix, Esq. M. R. I. A.——We

have seen, in the preceding paper, the external characters of these arseniates, very accurately described by the Count de Bournon; and the present memoir, we think, will prove that the analysis of these substances has been not less ably performed by Mr. Chenevix.

'When the Count de Bournon (says Mr. C.) had completed what appeared to him to be the mineralogical classification of these copper ores, he gave me some specimens of each kind, numbered indiscriminately, for the very purpose of excluding prejudice: and it was not till my task was ended, that we compared our observations. If I had been admitted into any previous knowledge of the arrangement dictated to him by the principles of crystallography, I should have been afraid, that I had merely thought true, what I wished to be so. But I can, most conscientiously, indulge in the satisfaction which the according results of different means to prove the same proposition naturally excite; and which is justly due to the truth of the outward marks, however delicate, yet still to be perceived, that nature has left visible to those who will observe her.

'I shall now proceed to offer the result of a chymical analysis, undertaken with a view to determine what confidence the crystallographical arrangement, adopted in the preceding paper, might merit; and to shew how far sciences so nearly allied, may receive new light and confirmation from reciprocal aid.

'I shall confine myself to detail only those general processes which, upon frequent trial, have been found preferable. By reducing to powder any of the arseniates of copper here spoken of, and then exposing them to heat in a platina crucible, the water of crystallization was quickly dissipated. But, as too great a degree of heat volatilized some portion of the arsenic acid, it was found necessary to moderate the heat; and, in order that every particle of water might be finally expelled, to prolong it. When the diminution of weight was ascertained, the residuum was dissolved in acetous, or, still better, in dilute nitric acid, and nitrate of lead was poured in. Arseniate of lead and nitrate of copper were thus formed, by double decomposition; but, when more nitric acid had been used than was strictly necessary to dissolve the arseniate of copper, no precipitate appeared, till the liquor had been evaporated. When the evaporation was pushed too far, part of the nitric acid, contained in the soluble nitrate of copper flew off; and that nearly insoluble cupreous nitrate, first mentioned by Mr. Proust, was produced. To obviate both inconveniences, alcohol was added, immediately before the liquor was quite evaporated, and long after the precipitate had begun to appear; in a few minutes, all the arsenic of lead fell to the bottom, while the nitrate of copper was held in solution. These new products being separated by filtration, the spirituous liquor was distilled; and, from the nitrate of copper, the quantity of that metal contained in the ore was obtained, by boiling the solution with pot-ash or soda.'

Mr. C. afterward observes that he has given the preference to lead above every other method of combining arsenic, in order

order to determine its quantity in any other body; having found arseniate of lime, which has been hitherto recommended, as well as all other earthy arseniates, to be nearly as soluble in water as sulphate of lime. He then relates some experiments which he previously made, to ascertain the exact composition of arseniate of lead; whence it appears that 100 parts contain

Arsenic acid - -	33
Oxide of lead - -	63
Water - -	4
	100

The above-described method of ascertaining the proportion of arsenic acid, in the arseniates of copper, is undoubtedly a very good one: but Mr. C. also points out the following mode, which may be deemed shorter, and perhaps even more accurate. 'After the quantity of water has been estimated, the remainder may be treated by either of the fixed alkalis, which will combine with the acid, and leave the brown, the only real, oxide of copper, in the same state as that in which it existed in the ore; the alkaline liquor may be neutralized, as above, and the proportions determined in the same manner.'

Having thus stated the mode of analysis employed by the author, we shall proceed to give the results.

No. 1. *Third Species of the preceding Paper.*

Oxide of copper,	60
Arsenic acid,	39,7
	99,7

No. 2. *Fourth Species of the preceding Paper.*

Oxide of copper,	54
Arsenic acid,	30
Water,	16
	100

No. 3. *Variety 2 of the third Species.*

Oxide of copper,	51
Arsenic acid,	29
Water,	18
	98

No. 4. *Variety 5 of the third Species.*

Oxide of copper,	50
Arsenic acid,	29
Water,	21
	100

No. 5. *Second Species of the preceding Paper.*

Oxide of copper,	58
Arsenic acid,	21
Water,	21
	100

No. 6. *First Species of the preceding Paper.*

Oxide of copper,	49
Arsenic acid,	14
Water,	35
	98

As the yellow hematitic copper ore, and the grey vitreous copper ore, so generally accompany the arseniates of copper and of

iron, Mr. Chenevix thought it right to make an analysis also of these; and he thus states their composition:

No. 7. *Yellow Hematitic Copper Ore.*		No. 8. *Grey Vitreous Copper Ore.*	
Sulphur,	12	Sulphur,	12
Silica,	5	Copper,	84
Copper, probably in the metallic state,	30	Iron,	4
Oxide of iron,	53		100
	100		

The author is of opinion that the colour in some specimens of arseniate of copper may be explained on chemical principles; because, having observed that the colour of these corresponds with the proportion of water contained in them, and having considered the experiments of M. Proust *, with the addition of certain results deduced by himself, he concludes that we have never yet obtained, by art, any real salt of oxide of copper; for that all of those, which are generally considered as such, are compounds of the oxide combined with a certain portion of water (forming a particular substance, to which M. Proust has given the very improper name of hydrate,) dissolved in an acid. According to Mr. Chenevix, therefore, the blue salt which is denominated sulphate, nitrate, or muriate of copper, should be called sulphate, nitrate, or muriate of hydrate of copper; because it is not a compound of oxide with the acid, but of hydrate with the acid—This is a question which can only be fully resolved by future experiments; and we know that the existence of hydrates is much doubted by many chemists, particularly by M. Fourcroy, who has stated his objections in his *Système des Connaissances Chimiques*. Nevertheless, taking every circumstance into consideration, we are much inclined to adopt the opinion of M. Proust and Mr. Chenevix.

From a general view of the foregoing analysis, it appears that the author considers No. 1. as the only real arseniate of copper; all the others being, in his opinion, arseniates of hydrate of copper.

In the second section of this paper, Mr. C. gives the analysis of the arseniates of iron. Some preliminary experiments, which he relates, indicated the following ready method of decomposing the ore:—One hundred parts, boiled with potash, ediately became of a deep reddish brown: the liquor was ted from the residuum by filtration; and, after the usual

* Annales de Chimie, vol. xxxii. p. 26.

neutraliza-

neutralization, evaporation, and affusion of nitrate of lead, it gave a precipitate equal to 35,5 of arsenic acid. The first residuum weighed 53; this being dissolved in muriatic acid, 3 of silica remained.—Ammonia, poured in excess into the muriatic solution, redissolved 22,5, which were copper; and 27,5 of iron remained. By this method, the two following analyses were performed:

Cupreous Arseniate of Iron.		*Simple Arseniate of Iron.*	
Silica,	3	Silica,	4
Arsenic acid,	33,5	Arsenic acid,	31
Oxide of iron,	27,5	Oxide of iron,	45,5
Oxide of copper,	22,5	Oxide of copper,	9
Water,	12	Water,	10,5
	98,5		100,0

Mr. Chenevix considers this last as being a pure arseniate of iron, mixed *accidentally* with a little copper: but we cannot agree with him in this opinion; for we deem it more probable that the 9 parts of oxide of copper, detected in the last analysis, are truly essential to this compound, as much as the 22,5 of copper are to the former one:—at least we cannot find, in this paper, any fact or argument which opposes the more natural idea, that the two abovementioned arseniates are modifications of the same substance: for surely the smallness of the quantity of copper, present in the second arseniate, cannot be regarded as any proof that it is *accidentally* present. We are therefore much inclined to believe that these arseniates should not be considered as two distinct species, but rather as two varieties of one species, viz. the cupreous arseniate of iron.

After having stated these analyses, the author makes some observations on the different oxides of iron. These, however, we are obliged to omit; and to proceed to the third and last section, intitled, *Analysis of the Red Octaedral Copper Ore, in which the Metal exists in a State hitherto unknown in Nature.* This ore, which is well known to mineralogists under the name of red or ruby coloured copper ore, has been analysed by various chemists: but Mr. Chenevix observes that, among the many analyses of this ore, he did not find one which, in the proportions, or even in the ingredients, resembled what he found to be the contents. He then relates that, having obtained, by precipitation, from 100 parts of this ore, 88,5 of metallic copper, and finding that only 11,5 of oxygen were combined with it, he concluded that the ore consisted of a mixture of oxide of copper with a portion of the metal; and he was the rather induced to be of this

this opinion, because the only oxide of copper existing in nature, with which he was acquainted, contained 20 per cent. of oxygen. By solution in muriatic acid, however, he found that no metallic copper was present; although, from the effects of nitric acid, it was evident that the metal was not at its maximum of oxidation. By a subsequent experiment, he found that a portion of the powdered ore could be dissolved by dilute phosphoric acid; and that the portion, which was dissolved, had taken the oxygene from the undissolved part: so that the former was oxidated, as usual, in the proportion of 20 per cent. while the latter was completely reduced to the metallic state.—From the whole of the experiments, Mr. Chenevix infers that this ore is a suboxide of copper, because it contains much less oxygen than has ever been suspected in any oxide of copper hitherto known: the proportions of copper and oxygen being as follow:

Copper,	88,5
Oxygen,	11,5
	100,0

This elaborate paper reflects much credit on its author, since it discovers considerable knowlege, industry, and ingenuity. In some parts, however, Mr. C. appears rather too prolix; and he begins in a more pompous and flowery style than we commonly see employed, (at least in this country,) when philosophical experiments are to be related: but these are trifles, —matters of fancy,—and cannot depreciate the real value of this truly scientific memoir.

[*To be continued.*] **Hatch.**

ART. IV. *The Doctrine of Phlogiston established*, and that of the Composition of Water refuted. By Joseph Priestley, LL D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. pp. 90. Printed at Northumberland, in America. 1800. Imported by Johnson, London. Price 3s. 6d.

THIS respectable veteran in philosophy continues to defend the doctrine of phlogiston against the system of the French chemists, with vigour unabated either by years or by change of circumstances. On the general question, we imagine, most of our chemical friends have already formed their decision; yet they will be much pleased with the spirit and ingenuity displayed in this treatise. Every thing, indeed, which proceeds from Dr. Priestley's pen on this subject, is intitled to particular regard, as he was among the first to lead the way in the vast field of pneumatic chemistry. We shall, therefore, state his

his principal objections to the French doctrine, leaving our readers to draw their own conclusions.

Dr. Priestley infers *that metals are compound substances, and contain phlogiston*, from the phænomena attending the solution of iron in vitriolic acid. The inflammable air produced in the process does not, he imagines, proceed from the water, because he cannot discover a proportionate quantity of oxygen in the vessel. To prove that the oxygen, in this case, does not combine with the iron, he produces the following experiment:

'For this purpose I took as much vitriolic acid as I had found in the experiment recited in vol. iii. p. 197. of my *Observations on Air*, (in three vols.) to have yielded 130 ounce measures of dephlogisticated air, of the standard of .15, which is extremely pure, and saturated it with iron. But after this it yielded only 52 ounce measures of air, of the standard of .55, which is much less pure. This shews that this precipitate is so far from containing more oxygen, that it contains less than the acid. It is in reality possessed of the opposite principle, which is agreeable to the phlogistic theory. For since much more inflammable air is procured from iron by means of steam only, than by its solution in any acid, more of the principle of which inflammable air consists, viz. phlogiston, must adhere to this calx of iron than to the other.'

A succeeding proof is drawn from the production of inflammable air, when one metal is precipitated by another in its metallic state: which fact, he thinks, cannot be satisfactorily explained on the new system.

Dr. P. then treats of the properties of *Finery Cinder*, which is reckoned an oxide of iron by the antiphlogistians: but he contends that it does not contain oxygen. The points on which he chiefly rests are, that, when finery cinder is dissolved in marine acid, it does not oxygenate the acid; and that, when it is revived in inflammable air, no fixed air is produced. For the Doctor's reasoning on these facts, we must refer to his pamphlet.

The next experiment alleged by the author is the production of inflammable air, by heat, from a mixture of finery cinder and charcoal. He says;

'This fact I cannot account for on the principles of the new theory; but nothing is easier on those of the old. For the finery cinder containing water, as one of its component parts, gives it out to any substance from which it can receive phlogiston in return. The water, therefore, from the finery cinder uniting with the charcoal, makes the inflammable air, at the same time that part of the phlogiston from the charcoal contributes to revive the iron. Inflammable air, of the very same kind, is procured when steam is made to pass over red hot charcoal.'

In

In answer to the objection that the finery cinder may be supposed to contain a sufficient quantity of water to furnish the hydrogen, he observes;

'But if we suppose finery cinder to contain water, and so much of it as is necessary to form all the air that is produced in this process, both fixed and inflammable, we must, surely, abandon the most fundamental principle of the new theory, which absolutely requires water to be decomposed in passing over hot iron, the oxygen alone remaining in the iron, and the hydrogen escaping in the form of inflammable air; and it is only by comparing the addition of weight acquired by the iron in this case, that the proportion between the oxgen and the hydrogen in the composition of water is ascertained. Besides, how can it be supposed that water should both be decomposed, and not decomposed, in the same circumstances?'

As this seems to be the strongest part of Dr. Priestley's argument, we add the following extract:

'Messrs. Berthollet and Fourcroy, however, say that this inflammable air comes from the decomposition of the "water contained in the charcoal, and which they say cannot be separated from it but by forming a new combination with it." *Annales de Chymie,* vol. 26. p. 306.

'But as water is no constituent part of charcoal, it certainly may be separated from it by heat, without forming any new combination, or undergoing any decomposition.

'If it be the water adhering to the charcoal that is decomposed, and the component parts of this water enter into a new combination with the carbone of it, I ask of what use is the finery cinder in the process, which, however, is essential to the success of it; and why might not the same heat have the same effect in decomposing this water, without the finery cinder, as well as with it?

'They do not say they have any occasion for the *oxygen* contained in the finery cinder, which, however, leaves it in this process; since the iron is revived; and how can they account for the separation of this oxygen from the iron without the supposition of something going in to take its place. Heat alone will not effect this. For heat tends to unite, and not to separate them.

'In whatever manner this water, adhering to the charcoal, contributes to the formation of inflammable air, Mr. Berthollet himself would say that when any particular degree of heat would not make charcoal yield any more inflammable air, there was no more water retained in it than the same degree of heat was able, with its assistance, to decompose. But after this, by the assistance of finery cinder, with even a much less degree of heat, it yields inflammable air very copiously, just as if steam had been made to pass over it in that heat; and, judging from evident appearances, there cannot be a doubt but that, with a sufficient quantity of finery cinder to supply it with water, all the phlogiston in the charcoal, exclusive of that which contributed

tributed to the revival of the iron, would be converted into inflammable air.

'As to the proportion between the fixed and inflammable air procured by this process, it is about the same with that procured from charcoal by means of steam, and will probably vary with the proportion of finery cinder, as that does with more or less water.

'That finery cinder contains nothing but water appears not only from its enabling charcoal to give out air exactly as water would do, but from its doing the same with respect to *terra ponderosa aerata*, which also gives out air by means of water, but not without.

'I mixed a quantity of this substance, reduced to a powder, with pounded finery cinder, and in a gun barrel, heated red hot, I got from it fixed air as copiously as if steam had passed over it. There was a considerable residuum of inflammable air from the iron.

'When I first made this experiment with charcoal and finery cinder, I remember Mr. Watt said, it was one that the Antiphlogistians could never reconcile to their hypothesis; and the more I consider it, and the objections that have been made to it, the more reason I see to be of his opinion.'

Several experiments follow, to prove that the calces of zinc do not contain oxygen.

Dr. Priestley next argues that sulphur cannot be a simple substance; because sulphur is not produced when dephlogisticated air is expelled by heat from vitriolic acid.—He adds;

'According to the phlogistic theory, the formation of sulphur from water impregnated with vitriolic acid air is very easy; both the ingredients of which it is composed being present, viz. its basis, vitriolic acid, and phlogiston. They are only made to form a different mode of combination by the heat in a tube hermetically sealed. For the vitriolic acid air is produced by heating in vitriolic acid most of the metals, or any other substance, solid or liquid, that is said to contain phlogiston.

'If it be said that the sulphur may be formed in this experiment by the heat separating the acid from its base; I answer that then the remaining water should be more acid than before; whereas I find it to be less so. This diminution of acidity I account for from the extreme volatility of this phlogisticated acid. But had the acid been that of vitriol unphlogisticated, it would have been obstinately retained by the water. Besides, it would, surely, be more easy to expel all acid from a liquor passing through a red hot open tube, than from a liquor confined in a glass tube hermetically sealed, so that it cannot possibly escape; and when it is exposed to no more than a moderate degree of heat. For had it approached to a red heat, the tube would have burst.'

To the arguments in favour of the new doctrine, taken from the revival of the calces of mercury without addition, Dr. P. objects that he has never been able to reduce the whole of a quantity of turbith mineral, by heat alone; and he thinks that the presence of phlogiston is proved by the absorption

absorption of a great proportion of inflammable air, on the revival of red precipitate in it.

The author now attacks the great support of the new theory, —the decomposition of water. We must omit the report of his arguments, because they scarcely admit of abridgement: but we shall quote the account of his experiments in close vessels, with the two species of air that are generally supposed to form water by their union:

'When dephlogisticated and inflammable air, in the proportion of a little more than one measure of the former to two of the latter (both so pure as to contain no sensible quantity of phlogisticated air) are inclosed in a glass or copper vessel, and decomposed by taking an electric spark in it, a highly phlogisticated nitrous acid is instantly produced; and the purer the airs are, the stronger is the acid found to be. If phlogisticated air be purposely introduced into this mixture of dephlogisticated and inflammable air, it is not affected by the process, though, when there is a considerable deficiency of inflammable air, the dephlogisticated air, for want of it, will unite with the phlogisticated air, and, as in Mr. Cavendish's experiment, form the same acid. But since both the kinds of air, viz. the inflammable and the phlogisticated, contribute to form the same acid, they must contain the same principle, viz. phlogiston.

'If there be a redundancy of inflammable air in this process, no acid will be produced, as in the great experiment of the French chemists, but in the place of it there will be a quantity of phlogisticated air together with water.'—

'When the decomposition of phlogisticated and inflammable air is made in a glass vessel, a peculiar *dense vapour* is formed, which the eye can easily distinguish not to be mere vapour of *water*, and if the juice of turnsole be put into the vessel, it immediately becomes of a deep red, which shews that it was an acid vapour.'

In the next section, Dr. Priestley urges farther, against the decomposition of water, that, by passing steam slowly over red-hot charcoal, the whole of the produce is inflammable air, without any mixture of oxygen; and that, when steam is passed over *Terra Ponderosa aërata*, in a red heat, nothing but the purest fixed air is produced: which, the Doctor says, must be furnished by the *terra ponderosa*. According to one of these experiments, therefore, water ought to consist of hydrogen only; and, according to the other, of oxygen only.

The following chapter relates to various experiments on the supposed decomposition of water. Dr. P. thinks that he has proved that inflammable air is furnished, in the preceding experiments, by the *metals*, not by the *water* employed; and that no real decomposition of water has taken place.—He then undertakes to combat the modern opinions respecting the constitution of fixed air, and of phlogisticated air:

'But

'But in many of my experiments, large quantities of fixed air have been procured where neither charcoal, nor any thing containing charcoal, was concerned, or none in quantity sufficient to account for it.

'There is no metal that I have ever heated with a burning lens, over lime water in atmospherical air, without producing a thick scum on its surface, which was, no doubt, *lime*, formed by the quicklime in the water and the dephlogisticated air contained in the portion of atmospherical air in which the process was made. For this purpose I have tried not only iron and zinc, which are said to contain plumbago (a kind of carbone from which some fixed air may be expelled) and also lead, tin, bismuth, copper, &c. as observed before, but even gold, silver, and platina, and it will hardly be pretended that all these metals contain carbone.

'From a quantity of calx of lead, part grey and part yellow, in a glass tube, I got its bulk of almost pure fixed air, and the residuum extinguished a candle. Where could be the carbone in this case?'

This subject is pursued in experiments on pyrophorus, fallen lime, &c.

The last section contains arguments against the existence of azote, in favour of the compound nature of phlogisticated air.—Dr. P. observes, in conclusion, that

'Before the new theory of chemistry can be unexceptionably established, the following things must be done:

'1. Whenever inflammable air, or *hydrogen*, is procured, evidence must be given of the production of a due proportion of *oxygen*, that is of 85 parts of this to 15 of the other; and this evidence must be something more than an addition of *weight*. It must be either actual *acidity*, or *dephlogisticated air*. Otherwise there is no proof of the inflammable air having come from the decomposition of the water. This, however, has not been done with respect to iron, or any other substance by means of which inflammable air is procured.

'2. When water is procured by the burning of inflammable air in dephlogisticated air, not only must the water be free from acidity, but there must have been no production of phlogisticated air in the process. For by the decomposition of this air the nitrous acid may be procured.'

An Appendix consists of miscellaneous matter, which does not require our particular notice.

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ART. V. *Sermons* by John Mackenzie, D. D. Minister of Portpatrick. 8vo. pp. 400. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.

FROM the clergy of the Scots church, we have received some excellent specimens of pulpit-eloquence. Blair, in particular, has proved that sermons may be elegant without losing their appropriate character; and he has thus been instrumental in exciting

exciting a fastidiousness among readers of these compositions, which greatly augments the difficulty of success in those who follow him. When a clergyman of the same church pursues the track in which this deceased divine gathered such deserved laurels, expectation of considerable merit will be ~~ex~~ formed ~~cited~~; and the public will not be prepared to tolerate that mediocrity to which, in another case, it might be disposed to grant its indulgence. Dr. Mackenzie seems to have been aware of this circumstance; and he has evidently laboured the sermons now before us, in order that they might reflect credit on himself, and reward the attention of their readers. In some respects, they certainly are not common, since they contain discussions which are not usually prosecuted in the pulpit: but then it must be confessed that they are rather dissertations than sermons. The author, indeed, apologizes for having given this denomination to them; and also for their length; some of them, especially, being so extensive, that they would exhaust the patience and defy the retentive powers of any auditory. Points of theological doctrine are not argued in them, because the Doctor's great object is to evince the importance of morality: a design which he aims at accomplishing rather by forcible reasoning, than by elegant and polished diction.—We have attentively followed him through the volume; and we shall first briefly state the subject of each discourse, and then offer such strictures as the discharge of our duty requires from us.

The sermons are nine in number; and they treat of the Quality of Vice—the Quality of Virtue—Criminal Pleasure—Pride—Theft—the Evils of Speech—the Idolatry of the Hebrews—the Return of the Jews from Babylon—the History and Character of Revealed Religion.

Were we to advise the perusal of the first of these discourses, and then add, *ex uno disce omnes*, we should injure both the author and the public; since this sermon is much more liable to objection than the others. Dr. M. commences it with an attempt to invelope morality in impenetrable mystery; and he uniformly represents vice as a *quality*, rather than as a disposition of mind and a course of action. He speaks of vice as possessing some 'unknown malignant quality;' as 'an agent that works upon the universe,' producing not only the wildest disorders among our species, but the most dreadful explosions in the elements:'—he even adds; 'Earthquakes, hurricanes, and inundations, have probably the same connection with vice as the diseases of the human body.'—Now this we apprehend to be a very incorrect view of the subject. Pride, theft, adultery, murder, or criminal pleasure, are not strictly *qualities*; they

they are evil *dispositions*, *habits*, and *actions*; and though it be common to speak, in general, of the *qualities* of virtue or vice, we understand by this term only their nature and operation. It is certainly very easy to shew the tendency of vice to render us miserable, without involving the subject in any mysteries. If we define vice, as Dr. M. himself (happily, for a moment, forgetting his favourite hypothesis,) has defined it, (p. 180), to be 'the excess or abuse of some passion, or of some natural sentiment;' how little occasion will there be for considering the consequent evil or misery as inexplicable! The violation of divine order and law must necessarily meet with punishment:—under the moral government of God, *vice* (*i. e.* an infringement of his established constitution of the universe, both material and intellectual,) must be attended with prejudicial consequences; while *virtue* (*i. e.* a conduct which is in harmony with the whole system of Providence,) must be productive of happiness:—hence the former is folly, and the latter is wisdom. The Divine Being has clearly marked his disapprobation of vice by ordaining that, in the course of nature, the excess or abuse of our passions shall operate to the injury of the body; and, when communities have become very corrupt, we read of their having been visited by extraordinary judgments: but we do not perceive how it can be inferred, that hurricanes and inundations are the result of vice equally with the diseases of the human body.

Excepting this disputable sentiment, into which the author apparently has been betrayed by contemplating virtue and vice as *qualities of a mysterious nature*, we have pleasure in informing our readers that there is much to admire in his discourses; and all those who have any moral sensibility must be benefited by a perusal of them. Guided in general by a discriminating mind, Dr. M. arranges his ideas with great perspicacity; and, fearless in the cause of virtue, he delivers his opinions with a freedom and an energy which will be highly honourable to him in the estimation of all good men. He does not attempt to ingratiate himself with the rich, the titled, and the powerful, by any time-serving maxims: but he directs the noble and the politician to such a contemplation of existing evils, as is calculated to excite them to beneficial repentance, and induce them to support their own importance, as well as the great interests of civil order, by practical morality and religious example.

In the discourse on Criminal Pleasure, the author describes the affection of love, and then exhibits the advantages of a married life compared with libertine indulgence:

'How pleasing (says he) is the affection of love, when it first approaches the soul, arrayed with its native innocence and simplicity?

It is ushered into the breast with the most delightful emotions, and awakens all the tenderest sympathies. It transports us beyond ourselves, creates a paradise around us, and gives us new interests and enjoyments. The selfish passions then cease to be regarded, and the generous affections take their turn to reign. All nature appears in her most pleasing form, and we feel ourselves in harmony with the universe. The mind is then in its highest, and its best state. Why should I describe it! You, who have felt the impression, and can recall the ideas of the pleasing morning of your lives, can tell us that this affection is one of the perfect gifts of heaven, dispensed to mankind to heal their cares, and multiply their enjoyments, by creating the tenderest relations among the species, and uniting them more intimately with one another.

'There are two systems with respect to this affection, which offer themselves to our consideration, the libertine system, and the system of the married life. The effects of the former we have described. It presents us with all the melancholy effects of vitiated passion. If our argument upon it has been just, it is evident that it goes directly in opposition to the happiness of the species, and to the great object of the Creator. The individual it corrupts, the society it disorders. It ruins the affections, and destroys the tenderest connections of the species. It is a system selfish and mischievous. Like all other selfish systems, too, it defeats itself. Instead of multiplying our enjoyments, it contracts them; instead of expanding the mind, it renders it illiberal; and destroys all the nobler affections of the soul, by debasing its regards, and teaching it to confine all its views to one unprofitable gratification.

'The system of the married life is, in all respects, different. The obvious effect of it is to multiply our enjoyments, by carrying us beyond ourselves, and giving us the tenderest interest in others. The gratification of the passion is but the opening of the scene. The tenderest relations are created, the most delightful connections of life arise around us. We acquire the fidelity of friendship, and the delights of children. These are by far the purest pleasures of our state. They teach us the value of our nature, and connect us strongly with our kind. They give us an interest in the world, and make us enter intimately into the society of our species. Exhausted with our exertions, and satiated as we would [should] be with our own experience, we resume our lives, and renew our pursuits in our children. These give us an interest in life to the last. In these we feel a concern superior to any that we can feel for ourselves. They present an important object to our mind, which furnishes the most delightful employment of our lives; redoubles the enjoyments, and enables us to bear the difficulties of our state with cheerfulness and perseverance.'

The sermon on Pride contains some excellent observations. In that which treats on Theft, Dr. M. discusses the melancholy subject of war; addressing himself to statesmen (as is very rarely seen in this species of composition) in the following terms:

'First

'First of all, fear God. Make *Him* not, I beseech you, your enemy; for, after all, you are really nothing in his hands. Cultivate, (for the sake of enlarging your own minds, if for nothing else) the impressions of religion; for however vast you may think your own schemes, religion opens prospects incomparably vaster. If she offer herself to you in the form of revelation, and if you either want leisure or talents to judge of its evidence, consider at least whether or not it may be made useful to good morals. Beware of the infamous distinction between private and public morality, or of acting upon the pernicious principle, that there is one rule for statesmen, and another for private persons. Be assured that vice is vice whereever it may appear, and that it produces invariably the same effects in all situations. Reflect that you are not judges of it, and that the issues of it go beyond all your calculations. Beware of adorning villainous actions with fine names. The God with whom you have to reckon knows no disguises. He calls things by their plain names. He forms quite other estimates of human affairs than you do. Remember that what you call glory, he may call infamy; what you call conquest, he may call robbery; what you call bravery, he may call murder; and what you call liberty or patriotism, he sees to be frequently nothing more than a pretence for a scramble, in the course of which you may gratify your own lust of power, or fill your pockets.

'When you make war, be sure that you do it from a good principle; for, if you should not, it is a war of robbery, and you will certainly be made accountable for all the devastations and murders, which it may occasion. Remember that there is a dreadful responsibility attached to your situation. Wars of self-defence alone are justifiable. They are justifiable, because necessary; and they are necessary, because they prevent evils of greater magnitude.—Make not war from covetousness. Look not, I beseech you, with an evil eye, upon the possessions of your neighbours. Suffer every nation to have a reasonable dividend, and do not take advantage of any temporary success to engross all to yourselves.—That you may not be covetous, be not prodigal. Waste not the public funds with which you are entrusted, that you may not be tempted, as is often the case, to look without you for the means of repairing your deficiencies. Remember that nations are the great robbers; and let no consideration induce you to do things for which a private person would be hanged. Be convinced that the earth is large enough for all the nations which inhabit it, and is able to afford full employment to you all without wars. If you wish (as every good statesman does) to increase the resources of your country, apply yourselves sedulously to cultivate her internal state. Contrive to give employment to the idle. So you will banish want. Multiply the means of living. So you will increase population. Let it be your great object to make your people comfortable. So you will take the best chance to assure their loyalty, and to gain their love. Act *all* upon this system, so will statesmen emulate statesmen, and nation nation, in *well-doing*, and you will increase among you the general happiness of the world.—If you do these duties, you will find full employment for yourselves, without disturbing your neighbours. If

you cultivate these principles, they will, in the first instance, enlarge your views, and fit you for statesmen; and, in the next, they will abate much your value for the present world, and be your best guard against injustice. Acting upon a system of this sort, a statesman becomes a glorious character. He is then the patriarch of his nation. But when, instead of cultivating all the honest, fair means of living, within himself, he commences a war of injustice against his neighbours, he is then a real robber, and becomes a curse and an execration among his species.—It shews, in a strong light, the character of the vicious quality, that the evil disposition of one profligate, or short-sighted statesman, will, even unknown to himself, and sometimes even contrary to his own intentions, often certainly to the intentions of his nation, actuate, if it be once admitted, the whole body of a people, and precipitate, in the most unaccountable and dreadful manner, the great masses of the nations upon one another.'

The discourse on the evils of speech ably shews the importance of governing the tongue, and merits a very attentive perusal; while the observations which are offered in the concluding sermons, on Idolatry, on the Captivity of the Jews, and on the Character of Revealed Religion, evince a meritorious accuracy of reflection on the history of the Bible.

We recommend to the consideration of infidels the following short extract from the last sermon, because it places the subject of our Saviour's mission in a striking point of view:

'The Jews and Gentiles agreed perfectly in the sacrifical system, with no other difference than this, that the former offered sacrifices to one God, and the latter to many. In the midst of this arose a man who introduced the religion of the affections, and rejected sacrifical worship. In the room of a religion which was addressed to the senses, he proposed one which had no connection with them; and, instead of sacrifices and outward forms, he substituted the devotion of the heart, and the practice of the plain duties.—The religion of sacrifices was more ancient, as well as more universal, than idolatry itself. The passing from the sacrifical worship to the worship of the affections, was as great a revolution in religion, as the passing from idolatry to the worship of one God. Moses had adventured upon the one of these, but did not attempt the other. While he called his nation to the worship of the one God, he proposed not to abolish sacrifices. He contented himself with establishing the first point, but did not enter upon the second. As little did he bring forward the doctrine of a future state, or the universal government of the Supreme Being. Religion hardly raised her views above the earth, and the divine favour was thought to be confined to one nation. It was reserved for the great author of Christianity to complete the work. In the midst of gross worship, and partial ideas of divine government, Jesus Christ arose. He not only exposed the corruptions, but threw new light upon the principles of religion.'

If any thing farther may be objected to these discourses, it is that they abound in Scotticisms. Such impurities of style should be corrected in a second volume, which we have no doubt Dr. M. will be encouraged to publish.

Moo-y.

ART. VI. *An Essay on Military Law*, and the Practice of Courts Martial. By Alexander Fraser Tytler, Esq. Advocate, and Judge Advocate D. of N. Britain. 8vo. pp. 440. 7s. Boards. Egerton. 1800.

THE importance of the subject, and the professional experience of the writer, have given no inconsiderable interest to the present publication. The frequency of courts martial, during the period of a war, renders it necessary that the rules, by which they are conducted, should be generally known and understood;—more especially since erroneous opinions have been entertained and disseminated by persons of high celebrity. The great commentator on the laws of Eng'nd, relying too implicitly, in this instance, on the authority of Lord Coke and Sir Matthew Hale, confounded that military law which is instituted and governed by statute, and which must prevail wherever the military profession exists, with that martial law which is adopted only in times of the most extreme anarchy and danger, and is exerted for the correction of those disorders which bid defiance to the ordinary vigour of the civil power. This is 'a remedy (as the present author justly observes,) warranted only by the last necessity, and therefore to be commensurate in the endurance of its operation to the immediate season of extreme danger.' Such an instance of its lamentable necessity was experienced in the late rebellion in Ireland; where it became requisite to proclaim martial law, but which was designed to continue no longer than the rebellion itself. The sentiments of Lord Loughborough on this delicate and interesting topic, as delivered in the Court of Common Pleas, in the case of Serjeant Grant, are well worthy of perusal; because they accurately mark the distinction between martial law properly so called, and that military law by which the British army is regulated.

Mr. Tytler begins his work with an historical view of the rise and progress of the military law in England, from the Conquest to the time of the Revolution; and, in this detail, he distinctly shews that the martial law, as reprobated by Coke and Hale, and afterward by Blackstone, is materially different from that law which, in the shape of a mutiny bill, is annually renewed by the authority of parliament; and which, consequently, has the same obligation on those to whom it extends, as the common and statute law possess over the nation at large. After this preliminary statement, which

was rendered necessary by the mistakes in which the subject had been involved, Mr. T. proceeds to discuss the authority of courts martial; and in this part of his work he considers the power, entrusted to his Majesty by the Mutiny Act, of forming, making, and establishing articles of war for the better government of the forces; "which articles shall be judicially taken notice of by all judges, and in all courts whatever."

Those persons who are subject to military law next come under the author's consideration. It was decided in Grant's case, above mentioned, that the bare circumstance of receiving pay as a soldier was sufficient to fix the military character, so far as to render a man amenable to trial before a court martial.—From this part of the volume, we shall extract what is said on the subject of aliens, members of parliament, and officers under suspension:

'It is the opinion of Lord Chief Justice Hale, that *aliens* who, in conjunction with domestic traitors, endanger the safety of a state, either by exciting rebellion and insurrection among its native subjects, or stir them up to individual acts of treason, are punishable by martial law. (Hale's Pl. Cor. c. 10. 15.) This is a topick which demands some investigation. It is allowed by every writer on the law of nature and nations, that although in general it is lawful in war to take all those means of annoying an enemy which nature and occasion afford, yet there are certain modes of hostile operation which the sentiments of all polished nations have agreed to reprobate as contrary alike to good policy and morality; and therefore as evidencing a baseness and treachery which remove their perpetrators from the condition of ordinary enemies. When, therefore, such persons are reduced by the fortune of war to the state of prisoners, their conduct may justify a measure of revenge or punishment beyond what is authorised to be inflicted on ordinary captives. It is not common to put to death prisoners of war. They are detained in safe custody, till they are exchanged by cartel, for an equal number of our subjects who may be in the hands of the enemy, or till the conclusion of a peace restores them to their liberty: and in the mean time they are treated with humanity. Such is the condition of ordinary captives. If, however, the subjects of a foreign power engaged with us in warfare, shall, either after a hostile invasion of the country, or clandestinely insinuating themselves into its bosom, employ themselves when there, in stirring up the subjects to treason and rebellion against the sovereign or government of the country, it is evident that such persons, when made prisoners, ought not to be considered as ordinary captives of war. There is no principle of justice that can condemn the forfeiture of the lives of such base and treacherous enemies: but as the humane and liberal spirit of our constitution does not allow the taking away of life without a judicial sentence, so it is customary to subject such persons, though aliens, (and as such in the general case not amenable to our laws), to trial by court martial; when, the facts being substantiated by proof, that sentence

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is awarded which is justly due to the atrocity of the crime. The legality of such procedure has been brought into question; but no doubt can exist upon the subject, when we attend to the principles of public law; and in fact this very practice is a noble proof of the generous and free spirit of the British constitution, which allows even to the basest of enemies the benefit of those safeguards of life and liberty which it assures to its natural-born subjects.

'It has been questioned, whether the privilege of parliament prevents any officer who is a member of either house of parliament, from being put under arrest by his General, or tried by a court martial. This is a subject of difficult discussion. If the privileges of parliament were to be considered only in the light of immunities or benefits personal to the individual who claims them, it might with some reason be argued, that a member of parliament, by the acceptance of a military commission, subjects himself in all respects to the operation of the military law, and renounces his privilege of freedom from personal arrest; as it is competent to every person to renounce a benefit granted in favour of himself. But the privileges of parliament belong to the parliament as a body, and their dignity and independence being interested in maintaining them inviolate, it would thence seem to follow, that no individual member has a right to renounce any of those privileges, without consent of the whole body of which he is a part. General utility, however, demands, that the ordinary course of justice should not be impeded in the prosecution of crimes: and therefore it is an understood point of law, that the privilege of parliament does not protect from arrest in cases of treason, felony, or breach of the peace. With respect to military crimes, the same political expediency demands that the course of justice should not be obstructed; but as the law has not expressly warranted the suspension of parliamentary privilege in such cases, the safest course seems to be, that previously to the arrest of any member, in order to trial for a military crime, notice should be given to the house of which he is a member, with a request that, for the sake of public justice, they should consent to renounce the privilege in that instance, in so far as the body of parliament is concerned, as the individual member is understood to have renounced it for himself, by the acceptance of a military commission.

'It has likewise been a matter of doubt, whether an officer who is under a suspension from service for a limited time, and who shall in that interval commit any crime or offence in breach of the Mutiny-act or Articles of War, is subject to military law, and amenable to a court martial for his conduct: but this doubt may easily be solved on a moment's reflection. Suspension, though it has the effect of depriving an officer for the time of his rank and pay, and putting a stop to the ordinary discharge of his military duties, does not void his commission, annihilate the military character, or dissolve that connection which subsists between him and the Sovereign, of whom he is a servant. He retains his commission, and is at all times liable to a call to duty, which would take off the sentence. Suspension being a punishment, is regulated in its effects by the tenor of the sentence which inflicts it, and which, as it bears no more than the temporary

deprivation of rank and pay, must be limited in its consequence to those effects alone, leaving every other particular of the military character entire. The suspended officer remains, therefore, subject to the military law, and is punishable for every breach thereof committed during his suspension. He may therefore, in justification of his conduct, if he feels it impeached in the public opinion, demand an investigation by court martial; as happened in the case of Lord George Sackville, who, though at the time deprived of all military employ or command under his Majesty, yet, having entreated a public investigation of his conduct by court martial, was allowed that benefit, which it is manifest could not have been granted to him unless he had been considered as strictly amenable to martial law.'

We find the following correct statement respecting the duration of the jurisdiction of a court martial, and of the manner in which the power is now continued to its members:

'As all procedure before a general court martial is held in virtue of the powers vested in his Majesty by the Mutiny-act, which requires an annual renewal: so, if it should happen that during the sitting of a court martial, and before a trial is finished, the Mutiny-act shall expire, it was formerly held necessary that the court should instantly cease its proceedings, and that after the passing of the new Mutiny-act it should be assembled *de novo*, under a new warrant from his Majesty, or the Commander in Chief empowered by him*.

'But

'* This happened during the trial of Sir [Lord] George Sackville in 1760. The court, after having made considerable progress in the trial, and heard the whole evidencee in support of the prosecution and a part of that which was adduced in defence, was dissolved by the expiration of the Mutiny-act on the 24th of March 1760; but a new bill having passed both Houses of Parliament, and received the Royal assent the same day, the court met next morning under a new warrant from his Majesty. The Judge Advocate General informed the court, that he had received the following opinions of the Attorney and Solicitor General, to the questions which he had submitted to their consideration.

'1. The members of the court and the Judge Advocate must be sworn again.

'2. The charge must be exhibited *de novo*.

'3. The witnesses to be produced on the new trial must be called upon to give their testimony *viva voce*. But in case the prosecutor and prisoner are willing to save time, as the proof is taken in writing, if the depositions are read over to the witnesses, and they are sworn and confirm the same, it is sufficient.

'4. As this proceeding is a new trial, independent of the former, the court is at liberty to examine the witnesses at large.

'5. The prosecutor is at liberty to produce new witnesses to support the charge.

'These opinions evidently declared, that as the law then stood, the expiration of the Mutiny-act *pendente causa* had the effect of voiding

'But by the terms of the present Mutiny-act it is declared, that trials begun under a former act shall not be discontinued by its expiration, but that it shall be lawful to proceed to judgment as if the act was still in force under which the trial began.'

The succeeding passage shews how far the assistance of counsel is allowed, and where it is denied, to a prisoner before a court martial:

'Courts martial being in general composed of men of ability and discretion, but who, from the nature of their profession and general mode of life, are not to be supposed versant in legal subtilties, or abstract or sophistical distinctions; and the cases that come before them giving rise to few questions of law; it has hence been considered as founded in established usage, that counsel, or professional lawyers, are not allowed to interfere in their proceedings, or, by argument or pleading of any kind, to endeavour to influence either their interlocutory opinions or final judgment. This is a most wise and important regulation, nor can any thing tend more to secure the equity and wisdom of their decisions: for lawyers being in general as utterly ignorant of military law and practice, as the members of courts martial are of civil jurisprudence and the forms of the ordinary courts; so nothing could result from the collision of such warring and contradictory judgments, but inextricable embarrassment, or rash, ill-founded, and illegal decisions.

'But although it is thus wisely provided, that professional lawyers shall not interfere in the proceedings of courts martial, by pleading or argument of any kind, it is at the same time not unusual for a prisoner to request the court to allow him the aid of counsel to assist him in his defence, either in the proper conduct of his exculpatory proof, by suggesting fit questions to the witnesses, or in drawing up in writing a connected statement of his defence, and observations on the general import of the evidence. This benefit the court will never refuse to a prisoner; because, in those unhappy circumstances, the party may either want ability to do justice to his own cause, or may be deserted by that presence of mind which is necessary to command and bring into use such abilities as he may actually possess. In this situation, however, the prisoner's counsel

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voiding and annulling the whole of the antecedent procedure, though they gave it to be understood, that provided the parties consented, the former procedure might be recapitulated, to save the time of the court. The Judge Advocate therefore proposed to the prisoner, that the proceedings held under the former warrant should be taken as the proceedings of the new court martial; and that the depositions, being first read to and confirmed by the several witnesses upon oath, should be taken as good and valid evidence in the cause. The prisoner accepted the proposal; whereupon the depositions of the several witnesses were read to them respectively, after being sworn in due form, and they confirmed their several evidences. To remedy the inconvenience of this tedious and circuitous procedure, the alteration mentioned in the text has been made in the Mutiny-act.'

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who properly understands his duty, will see that it is his part not to embarrass, to tease, or to perplex the court, but rather to conciliate their favour, by wisely regulating the conduct of his client; not to force the discordant and unsuitable axioms and rules of the civil courts upon a military tribunal, but candidly to instruct himself in that law which regulates their procedure, and accommodate himself to their forms and practice.'

The author's remarks on evidence are, in general, well-founded and judicious: but to the following observation we cannot give our assent:

'The necessity of cirumstances requires in many cases, that the evidence of interested persons should be admitted: as, for example, in occult crimes, or where there is a penury of evidence. Thus, as before observed, the person who is robbed, ravished, or assaulted and beaten, is not disqualified from giving evidence: for otherwise the criminal might often escape detection and punishment. But such evidence is always of a suspicious nature, and is not *per se* sufficient for conviction.'

It is to be remembered that, in all public prosecutions, the King, as the supreme governor, whose peace is invaded by the perpetration of every crime, is the nominal and ostensible prosecutor; and in that situation the testimony of every person, who is not precluded by other regulations, is admissible:—the score of interest shall be insufficient to affect his competency. As to the *credit* which may be given to his evidence, the jury are not only the best but the sole judges. Certain it is, that many individuals have been convicted on the single unsupported testimony of the person who has been robbed, ravished, or assaulted and beaten;—which convictions have proceeded on the best of all reasons: since crimes, and those of the deepest dye, would in many instances go unpunished, if the party injured were not of himself sufficient to convict the wrong-doer, because men seldom transgress the laws in the presence of a multitude of witnesses. All that is expected or can be required, on these occasions, is that the testimony should be clear, explicit, consistent, and free from every imputation of prejudice.—In the next ensuing paragraph, Mr. Tytler appears to place (in our opinion, very unjustly,) the testimony of a party injured, on the same degraded level with that of an accomplice or *socius criminis;* whose evidence is frequently and necessarily (but we regret such a necessity) admitted for the detection of crimes.

In the same chapter, viz. that which treats on the comprehensive and important subject of Evidence, the author lays it down that 'persons convicted of felony or of perjury, though pardoned, cannot be received as witnesses: for the pardon, though

though it remit their punishment, cannot wash out their moral turpitude.' This assertion is too unqualified, because it makes no distinction between a statute-pardon, and the King's pardon; and many doubts have been entertained on this topic by some of the most distinguished characters in the profession. Chief Baron Gilbert, in his admirable book on the law of evidence *, says;

" One attainted of felony or cheating, after a general statute-pardon, is allowed to be a good witness, and so he is after burning in the hand, which amounts to a statute-pardon; for, by the statute-pardon, every body that is within that pardon is received into the society as a person of credit, and no man can be punished in his reputation when the public voice has discharged him. But whether the King's pardon discharged him, has been a question; for some hold that the King's pardon indeed takes away the punishment, but doth not remove the crime, and the turpitude of the crime always remains in the mind, and is ever a presumption against his evidence. Others hold the King's pardon restores the reputation; and the loss of reputation, being part of the punishment, the King's pardon, that can take off the whole punishment, must by necessary consequence restore the reputation; and the King, who is the great preserver of the life, liberty, and estate of his subject, is the best judge of the consequence of his pardon. So that if any person, guilty of those crimes by which credit is lost, be afterwards pardoned, it must be supposed that he hath repented of his fault, and hath returned to a better mind, and therefore that his evidence is not dangerous to the life, liberty, or estate of the subject; *and therefore the law is now held to be*, that on perjury at common law, the party pardoned may be a witness, because the King has a power to take off every part of the penalty, and so discern whether it is fit the offender should be restored to credibility: but if a man be indicted of perjury on the statute, the King cannot pardon, for the King is excluded and divested of that prerogative by the express words of the statute."

In his subsequent reasoning on this point, Mr. Tytler confounds the *competency* with the *credit* of a witness; and he omits to state the above satisfactory reason why the King's pardon of a person convicted of perjury on the statute does not restore his competency, namely, because the express words of the statute have deprived the King of that prerogative in this particular instance. Mr. Hargrave, in the second volume of his Juridical Arguments †, has dedicated a long and elaborate dissertation to this very subject; and he determines that a person convicted of perjury at common law, and who had stood in the pillory for his offence, was restored to his competency as a witness by the King's pardon.

After having given a detailed statement of the incidents belonging to a trial by court-martial in this country, the author

* P. 141. edit. iv. London, 1777.

† See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxx. p. 166.

judiciously

judiciously concludes his volume with the following contrasted account of the manner of bringing military offenders to trial, in France, before the revolution:

'It may not be improper to subjoin a short account of the forms observed in the trial of military offenders, by a *Conseil de Guerre*, or court martial, under the French establishment, previous to the late revolution;' a detail, which places in the strongest point of view the superiority of our criminal procedure in military matters, to that of a nation to whom the art of war has been more the object of systematic arrangement and regulation, than to most of the other nations of Europe.

'As soon as any military delinquent was apprehended and committed to prison, the captain to whose company he belonged was required to present a memorial to the governor of the place, setting forth the crime, and demanding that the prisoner should be brought to trial. The governor having granted his permission in writing upon the memorial, transmits it to the major of the garrison, who is to act in the character of prosecutor. The major orders the prisoner to be brought before him strictly guarded, and after reading to him the charges of which he is accused, he demands to hear what he has to urge in his defence, and puts to him whatever interrogatories he thinks proper; taking down his answers in writing, which, after being read over to him, the prisoner must sign. The major then examines, in the prisoner's presence, such witnesses as can best inform of the matters of accusation; the prisoner being at liberty, on just grounds, to object to their competency. The testimonies of the witnesses are then read over to him, and he is asked what he has to urge in answer to their evidence. The substance of his answer is then taken down in writing, and signed by him. This procedure, (which generally occupies but a few hours), being finished, the major reports to the governor, who orders a *Conseil de Guerre* to be assembled next morning. The court, which for capital trials must consist of at least seven officers, is composed of as many captains of the infantry regiments in garrison, if for the trial of an officer or soldier of foot, and of captains of cavalry, if for an officer or soldier of the cavalry. If there is not a sufficient number of captains, subalterns are allowed to supply their place, and even serjeants. The *conseil* being assembled in the governor's house, the governor officiates as president of the court, and the major as prosecutor, and the clerk reads over the whole procedure, before the prisoner is brought in. When this first reading is finished, the prisoner is brought before the court, and the whole must again be read over in his hearing. The president then asks if he has any thing further to state in his own defence, and previously thereto, he administers to him an oath, that he shall say nothing but the truth. His answer is written down by the major, and signed by the prisoner. The president then asks him, whether he objects to any of his judges; and if his objection is sustained, the person objected to withdraws from the table. He is in the last place quesioned whether he has any accomplices, and his answer is recorded. The prisoner is then sent back into confinement;

finement; and the president reads the ordonnance or military law applying to the case; the major, as prosecutor, demanding a sentence agreeable to the law. A sheet of paper is then given to the youngest member of the court, who writes at the top of it his opinion and vote; folding down the paper upon the writing, and presenting it to the next in order of seniority, till all have written down their opinions; that of the president being accounted as two, when on the side of mercy, and as one, when for punishment. The president then opens the paper, and after arranging the votes, declares the opinion of the majority, and pronounces the sentence, which is written down by the major, and signed by all the members of the court; and immediately thereafter, it is announced to the prisoner, and must be carried into execution the same day; for neither the governor nor any other superior officer has a power of suspending or remitting a sentence once pronounced and signed. The record of the whole proceedings and sentence is sent, on the day following the execution, to the minister of war.'

We have read the whole of this performance with pleasure, and from many parts have derived considerable information. Mr. Tytler writes with perspicuity, and manifests good sense and knowledge. With his account of the office and duties of a judge advocate, we were particularly gratified:—his professional situation of Depute (or Deputy) Judge Advocate, for Scotland, in course furnished him with authentic materials on this subject.

The appendix contains several amusing papers, particularly one on the subject of the Offices of High Constable and Marshall, and on the Powers of the Court of Chivalry; with another on the subject of the antient Assize of Arms, and Commission of Array.

S.R.

ART. VII. *On the Nature and Occasion of Psalm and Prophecy.* Twelve Critical Dissertations. By James Hurdis, D. D. Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford. 8vo. pp. 268. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

IN this volume, as in most of Dr. Hurdis's compositions, much ingenuity and acumen are displayed: but his fertile imagination often suggests fanciful ideas, which he fosters with care and matures with assiduity; until at last they become favorite hypotheses, or rather, in his own estimation, certain positions. Some years ago, he undertook to shew that the תנים of the Hebrew writings always denotes the *crocodile*; and in the present work he labours to prove that *psalmody* and *prophecy* are so intimately connected with the season of the *first rain*, and the time of *night*, that they never happened at other periods, nor on other occasions. Though we must confess that,

that, to us, this argument appears to be a paradox, yet it is supported with very plausible reasoning; and perhaps there are persons who will consider the system as not at all improbable. However this be, it is not our present purpose formally to combat it.

Dr. Hurdis divides his subject into twelve sections, or so many separate *Dissertations;* the contents of which we shall state to our readers in a summary manner.

In Dissert. 1. after having proposed the subject to be discussed, the author endeavours to shew 'that the *season* of the promulgation of prophecy, and of singing the psalm, was at *a great public feast*, common to the Hebrews with every other nation of the East: which feast was regulated by *the return of the periodical rains of autumn.*'

In Dissert. 2. he supposes that 'the performing of the psalm was by night, during illuminations;' and it was at the same time that 'the prophet was favoured with those divine communications which are termed the *word* of God.' Here the Professor descants on the mode of war among the Hebrews, on the voyage of St. Paul, and makes some shrewd observations on the psalm of Judith.

The 3d Dissert. contains remarks on the 68th psalm—on the choral dance performed after the slaughter of Goliath—on the thanksgiving of Hannah—on the dance of Jephthah's daughter—on the psalms of Deborah, and of Miriam; i. e. the song of Moses after the passage of the Red Sea. Here we cannot refrain from expressing our surprize at the author's translation of two Hebrew words, גאה גאה, rendered in our common version "He hath triumphed gloriously," but which Dr. H. says should be translated, "He hath overflowed, he hath overflowed."—We believe that he is the first who ever found the meaning of '*overflowing*' in these two words of Moses.—Another curious instance of adapting phrases to a particular system occurs shortly afterward. The Hebrew historian simply says (Exod. ii. 5.) that "Pharaoh's daughter went down to the river to bathe, while her maids walked along the river's side:" but, says Dr. H. 'How coldly is the Hebrew word הלך here rendered *walked along*, or as the LXX. παρεπορευοντο. We must therefore understand the divine writer, that when the daughter of Pharaoh went down to bathe at the river, her maidens went with her *making procession* upon the brink of the river. She undoubtedly was the leader of the *chorus*, which, in token of veneration, was to be conducted even unto the waters.' Spirits of Michaelis and Dathe! what would ye have thought of such an interpretation?—The Dissertation concludes

cludes with extracts from Homer and Hesiod, descriptive of dancing and singing.

In Dissertation 4th, Dr. Hurdis gives a new classification of the Psalms. 'When viewed (says he) in a body, they naturally divide themselves into *three* distinct classes. In the *first* are those psalms which betray much apprehension from the enemy, and much *despair of the rain.* In the *second* are those warmer effusions of piety in which religion triumphs over doubt, and hope and confidence take place of despondency. These look *forward to the rain*, and the flight of the enemy.—In the *third* appear those raptures and extatic compositions, which either exult at the certainty of their [whose?] deliverance by *the descent of the rain*, or triumph over the foe already dispersed by it.'—In the *first* of these classes, Dr. H. brings instances; particularly from the 42d, 43d, 80th, 83d, 84th, and 143d psalms.

In Dissert. 5th, the *second* class of psalms is considered, and equal ingenuity is employed to connect them with the *rainy* season. The author refers, in particular, to psalms 10, 11, 27, 37, 65, and 144.

The consideration of the *third* class occupies three Dissertations, the 6th, 7th, and 8th; in which the following psalms are brought to view in this order, viz. Dissert. 6, the psalms 29, 77, 85, 93, 95, 96, 104, 126, and 148.—Dissert. 7th, psalms 18, 23, 36, 46, 47, 48, 50, and 66.—That Dr. H. may have a fair hearing, and speak for himself, we shall lay before our readers the whole of what he says on the 18th psalm: both because it is written in his best style, (which is not always accurate and chaste,) and because it is not too long for our confined limits:

'What remains of our purpose is to notice those rapturous compositions of the Psalmist, which are at the same time expressive of gratitude to God for *feeding* his people, and for *putting the enemy to flight* by the former rain.

'A noble instance of this kind of *mixed* ode, and which, as boldly as any, unites the more powerful notes of *victory and triumph* with the softer tones of *thanksgiving for plenty*, is the *eighteenth* psalm. It commences with those very comprehensive words, 'I will love thee, O Lord, my strength, the Lord is *my rock* and *my fortress*'—words which need no argument to explain them. For if David means to speak of God as his *rock*, he means to celebrate him as the *fountain of his waters*; if he addresses him as his *fortress*, he praises him as his *protector from the enemy*. The enemy had surrounded him, according to his own account, and in his distress he called upon the Lord. The Lord is said to have heard his voice *out of his temple*, and immediately makes his appearance in the former rain. "Then *the earth shook and trembled*: the foundations also of the mountains *moved and were shaken*, because

because he was wroth. A *smoke* in his wrath went up, and *fire from his mouth devoured, blazes* were kindled by it." גחלים, I think, is in no instance *coals*, but always the pure *flame* of fire. When taken from the altar, it is particularly improper to render it *coals*, because the *fat* only of the victim was burnt, which could leave no *coal*. It may even be doubted whether the altar had any *ashes;* for the word דשן, which we render *ashes*, is more properly the *melted fat* of the altar which is unconsumed, and which is said to be *poured out* as a liquid. If Ezek. x. 2. and 7. be compared, it will appear that גחלים is the *blaze* of fire only, without coal. It is *the blaze of lightning*, or *the blaze of the hearth*, or *of the altar*, or *of the autumnal conflagration*. But to proceed with the psalm. "He *bowed the heavens also and came down, and there was darkness* under his feet. And he *rode upon a cherub* and did fly, yea, he did fly *upon the wings of the wind*. He made *darkness* his secret chamber: his pavilion round about him, was *dark waters, and thick clouds of the skies*. From the splendour before him his thick clouds passed away, there was *hail and blazes of fire*. The Lord also *thundered in the heavens*, and the Most High uttered his voice; there was *hail* and *blazes of fire*. He also *sent down his arrows and scattered them, and he showered lightnings and discomfited them*. And *rivers of waters were seen*, and *the foundations* of the (buildings of the) world *were made bare*, at thy rebuke, O Lord, *at the blast of the hurricane* of thy displeasure." The latter feature of this tremendous description of the storm of the former rain, seems to require some little illustration. The prophet Ezekiel, speaking of the season when the enemy are put to flight by *an overflowing rain and great hailstones*, describes it as a time, when the mountains are thrown down, and the steep places and *walls fall to the ground* *. And that this ruin was the effect of the hurricane, in a great measure, and not of earthquake alone, is evident, when the prophet is commanded to reprove the confidence of Israel, under the image of a *wall* to be destroyed by the former rain. "There shall be an overflowing shower, and ye, O great hailstones, shall fall, and a *stormy wind shall rend it*. I will even *rend it with a stormy wind* in my fury; and there shall be an overflowing shower, in mine anger, and great hail-stones, in my fury, to consume it. *So will I break down the wall*, and bring it down to the ground, so that *the foundation thereof shall be discovered* †." This is precisely the same effect of the hurricane which the Psalmist notices, and he has expressed it in the very terms used by the prophet. If it be necessary to produce farther testimony of the fact, we may remember that when the sons and daughters of Job were keeping the feast at their elder brother's house, "there came *a great wind* from the wilderness and *smote the four corners of the house, and it fell* ‡." Our Lord himself has drawn a simile from this dreadful consequence of the gust of the former rain. "The rain descended, and the floods came, and *the winds blew*, and *beat*

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* Ezek. xxxix. 19, 20. 22. † Ezek. xiii. 11. 13, 14.
‡ Job, i. 19.

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*upon that house, and great was the fall of it.**" We are therefore sensible, that David speaks of a natural and usual consequence of the former rain, when he says, " rivers of waters were seen, and *the foundations* of the world *were made bare*, at thy rebuke, O Lord, *at the blast of the hurricane* of thy displeasure."

' Having thus sublimely described the more dreadful consequences of the descent of the former rain, the Psalmist begins to dwell upon its happier effects. " He sent from above, he took me, *he drew me out of the many waters.*" The image of the infant lawgiver, preserved at the time of the overflowing of the Nile, and called by the daughter of Pharaoh *Moses* (משה), " because," said she, " *I drew him* (משיתיו) out of the water," here very naturally takes possession of the mind of David. In a manner exquisitely judicious, he seizes her expression; and, though it has not been used by any other Hebrew writer, and is probably a Coptic term, applies it most happily to himself, by saying, " He sent from above, he took me, he *drew* me (ימשני)," i. e. *he drew me after the manner of Moses* " out of the many waters." A bolder and more masterly stroke of genius and judgment, I know not where to find. He next proceeds to notice the flight of the foe. " He hath *delivered me from my strong enemy—he hath brought me forth into enlargement.*—The Lord hath rewarded me according to my righteousness.—For *I have observed the processions of Jehovah, and have not apostatized* from my God. Thou wilt save the afflicted people. *Thou wilt cause my lamp to shine*, O Jehovah; my God *will enlighten my darkness. For by means of thee is the earth ploughed* (בך ארץ נדוד), and by means of God *shall I leap singing* (אדלג שור)." Such I take to be the literal sense of that verse to which we have given a version so very faulty, " For by thee I have run through a troop, and by my God have I leaped over a wall." If the verb דלג be critically pursued, it will be found *always* to express the action of the dancer, and is *never* used to signify a military effort. The Psalmist adds, " The *word* of the Lord *is tried*, he is a buckler to all who trust in him. For who is God save the Lord, and who is a *Rock* save our God? It is God *who girdeth me with strength*, and giveth *my procession* perfectness. He maketh *my feet like hinds*, and maketh me *to be stationed on my high places. He teacheth my hands to war, so that a bow of steel is broken by mine arms.*" Surely nothing can be more natural and perspicuous than the whole of this passage. There is not a single expression which is not applicable to the season of the great rain, nor has the author any difficulty, when we understand that his *feet* are compared to the *hinds*, because they *bound and leap* upon the high places.

' The psalm is concluded with a strain of lively triumph at the flight of the foe, because the rain is come. " *I will pursue mine enemies* and overtake them, neither will I turn again till they are consumed. I will wound them that they shall not be able to rise, they

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' * Matth. vii. 27. The power of the former rain is here finely described in the original Greek, as well as in the parallel passage, Luke vi. 48, 49.'

shall fall under my feet. For thou shalt gird me with strength unto the battle, thou shalt cause to bow down those who are risen up against me. They shall cry aloud, but there shall be no Saviour; to Jehovah, but he shall not answer them. And *I will disperse them as the dust before the wind*, as the *mire of the streets* will I empty them out." These are both images of the rain season; the one previous, the other subsequent to the fall of the first showers. "Thou shalt deliver me from *the strivings of the people*, thou shalt constitute me the head of the nations; a people I have not known shall serve me: as soon as they hear of me they shall obey me, the sons of the stranger shall submit themselves unto me. *The sons of the stranger shall waste away*, and shall be afraid out of their lurking places. The Lord liveth, and blessed be my *Rock*, and extolled be the God of my salvation. It is God that giveth me revenge, and *speaketh* the peoples under me." This is a strong, but an elegant and just expression, similar in force to "he shall *speak peace*." Here *the word* announces defeat, which in fact is the same as *speaking peace*. "*From the man of violence thou wilt deliver me.* Therefore will I celebrate thee among the nations, O Jehovah, and to thy name will I sing praise."

It will not be denied that uncommon fancy and ingenuity are displayed in this lively delineation: yet we think that it would be no hard task to shew that this psalm might have been written and chaunted at any other season of the year, than that of the autumnal *rains*. The whole is evidently a metaphorical picture, collected from various and heterogeneous occurrences, poetically blended together in the wild oriental manner: but in a strain equal, if not superior, to that of Pindar himself. In this point we perfectly agree with Dr. H.; and we are, moreover, much pleased with many of his new translations, not only of this psalm, but of several other passages of Hebrew Scripture which he has had occasion to quote. For example, we are of opinion with him, that נחלים, here at least, signifies not *coals* but *flakes of fire*. We cannot, however, think that the words אפיקי מים are well rendered *rivers of waters*; nor can we by any means approve of דרכי יהוה being translated the *processions of Jehovah*:—much less of his version of v. 30. *For by means of thee is the earth ploughed, and by means of God I shall leap singing.* How this last sentence can be extracted from the original, we are truly at a loss to conceive: since, in the first place, it is clear that ארץ cannot here be a noun signifying *earth*, not only because the vowel points are annexed to it, but because it is followed by a masculine, whether נדוד be an adjective, or a participle as Dr. H. makes it: for we are convinced that ארץ, *earth*, is always of the feminine gender, except when, as a collective, it denotes *the inhabitants of the earth*. 2dly, The parallelism requires a verb in the first *comma*, as well as in the 2d:—but ארלג is

confessedly a verb: so then must ארץ; and, indeed, a great number of MSS. have ארוץ full; and all the antient interpreters must have so read it in their copies. Lastly, it will be difficult to shew that שור can possibly signify *singing*. We apprehend that it can mean nothing but *a wall*, as it was understood by all the antients;—and this, we think, naturally leads to the meaning of גדוד; which, with Dr. H. we allow to be badly rendered *a troop* in our common version. We believe that it means a *hedge*, *fence*, or *rampart*.—On the whole, we are clearly of opinion that the Doctor is not founded in this correction.

We could point out several similar instances, in which this ingenious author has indulged himself in fanciful and novel interpretations, repugnant to the genius of the Hebrew idiom and the rules of Hebrew grammar: but we must proceed to observe that the three remaining Dissertations relate to *Prophecy*, and are designed by the author to prove that prophecy, also, was delivered 'at the season of the former rain' from Abraham to Malachi!

Dr. Hurdis trusts that, in these Dissertations, he has shewn to the full conviction of his readers, what is the *nature* and what is the *occasion* of Psalm and Prophecy: 'but let it not be imagined (he adds) that I have exhausted the subject, and suffered no proofs, which may favour my conclusions, to be kept in reserve.—I have planted a rock, upon which criticism may fairly rely, and I must leave it to the curious to build upon it the fabric of perfect knowledge by search. With safety I can pronounce, that labour thus applied will be well repaid; and that, when the Scriptures have been examined by the above standard of investigation, they will be found to be truly worthy of that Holy Spirit, which inspired their authors.—I will farther add, that the method here pursued is the only safe and effectual means of extracting from the Scriptures their genuine sense.'

Though these assertions are made with great confidence, we strongly suspect that they will disappoint the sagacious and sober critic. We fear that the rock, on which he is invited to rear his edifice, is not so solid as it appears to be in the eyes of Dr. H.; and indeed, on the contrary, that it will prove to be a heap of sand, which the breath of sound criticism will entirely disperse. It is, in our opinion, degrading to the Holy Spirit, to be confined to inspire psalmists or prophets at any one particular season, whether *rainy* or *dry*; whether by *night* or by *day*. Yet, in thus terminating our remarks, we must add that we have read this volume with pleasure; and that the ability displayed in it should recommend it to the lover of Hebrew literature and of biblical criticism.

ART. VIII. *Fabliaux or Tales, abridged from French Manuscripts of the XII. and XIII. Centuries, by M. Le Grand,* selected and translated into English Verse, by the late Gregory Lewis Way, Esq. with a Preface, Notes, and Appendix, by G. Ellis, Esq. In two Vols. Vol. II. 4to. pp. 340. 16s. Boards. Faulder. 1800.

AN anonymous prose translation of these tales was published in London in the year 1786, in 2 vols. 12mo *; and ten years afterward, the public was favoured with the first volume of the present version of them, also anonymous †. We now receive the second; from which we learn at once the name and the decease of the translator, but which is published with equal elegance by the editor, and accompanied by well-executed vignettes, cut in wood.

Though we were much pleased with the 1st vol. of these Fabliaux in English verse, we were not thoroughly satisfied with the mixture of old and new language, of obsolete and fine words, scattered here and there with those of a common narratory dialect. These small specks are less visible, we think, in the present volume; though here we have *thew'd, wertless, wimple, perquedry, atween, meynt, fleck'd, quail, behest, singults,* &c. and, among words that are somewhat too elegant and modern, we have *consigned, culture, magnanimous, illustrious, aspiring, precipitate, sumptuous, patroness,* &c. derived neither from the Saxon nor the Roman, but all from the Latin.

In the continuation of the *Lay of the gray Palfrey,* by the editor, Mr. Ellis, (beginning p. 241.) we have few of these objections to make. We have indeed the terms *renovated, indignant,* and *urged,* "so English yet so Latin all the while," that we should have stared if we had found them in a tale written before the XVIIth century:—but consistency required Mr. E. to pursue the track which his friend had marked out.

The posthumous tale by Mr. Way, inserted in the appendix, and intitled *the Paradise of Love,* appears to us to be one of the best in the present volume. The description of this paradise, at which the poet arrives with great difficulty, is so animated and pleasing, that we must present it to our readers:

'Onward I journey, and at length, behold,
Where a long avenue of fragrant trees
Lead to a palace over-laid with gold,
(Such potent duke or monarch well might please,)
And on its moats that shone like glassy seas,
With well-wrought masonry of marble lin'd,
Floated amphibious fowl of every kind.

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* See M. R. vol. 76. † See M. R. vol. xxiii. N. S.

'There

'There swam they, all in pairs, the stately swan,
With many more than here rehearse I may,
Now gently sailing side by side, anon
Dashing, in love's disport, the glittering spray;
Beneath, the finny race in couples lay:
Birds, fishes, beasts, all wedded; save alone
One turtle on a wither'd branch made moan.

'The portal of the palace right before,
Two stately columns rose, of crystal wrought,
A snow-white marble image either bore,
With hidden powers of Cupid's magick fraught;
For now one seem'd to kiss, then th'other sought,
With interchange of sweet caress and smile,
To pay that back she had received erewhile.

'Much was I wondering at so strange a sight,
When back the double gates recoiling flew;
And the full glories of Love's mansion bright
Burst forth at once on my astonish'd view.
'Lo Paradise!' I cried with rapture new,
No! were I hundred-tongued, those tongues would fail
To give full form and utterance to the tale.

'All, most by mortals sought, unchanging joy,
Unrival'd Beauty, ever harbour'd there:
Soft lays of love, perfumes that never cloy,
With hum of ceaseless kisses, fill'd the air:
Enthron'd in flowers, the monarch debonnaire
Look'd round on all, and whom he look'd on, blest;
And the whole year was one continual feast.

'As when, in centre of the firmament,
The peerless sun stands forth with dazzling sheen,
That mortal folk are with the light yblent;
Such was the godhead's sovereign beauty seen,
Encompass'd with his court: of these I ween
Were many a pair of lovers scatter'd round,
That from his fostering look protection found.

'With his fair mate was many a lover there,
In speechless dalliance lost and mute delight;
And ever as the monarch eyed a pair,
It seem'd his look spoke pleasure at the sight:
Then would he shoot such thrilling arrows bright
Through their faint frame, the subtle fire would rove,
And waken new necessity to love.
'All here was bliss.'———————

18

At the end of this agreeable and elegant publication, Mr. Ellis has inserted the *Lay of Lawnfal*, written in old French during the reign of St. Louis, and translated by Thomas Chestre, who is supposed to have lived in the reign of Henry VI. Mr. E. has given it in its antique dress: had he

modernized it in the manner in which Chaucer has been improved by Dryden and Pope, it would have been a valuable present to the lovers of our old national poetry: but it is now *too far gone* to be read with pleasure, even with the assistance of Mr. Ellis's glossary and minute explanations; and if a reader, by digging and delving, should arrive at the meaning of so many obsolete words, the Metre will be still more difficult to acquire, in any tuneable degree. Perhaps, by *lōngs* and *shŏrts*, where there is a want or a redundance of syllables, something like a cantilena may be obtained. Every line requires three longs or accents: but all the rest are short, and must be hurried over as fast as possible. One *short* syllable, at least, is necessary before the first *long*: but we have often two, and sometimes three or four, 'ere an accent can be given to any word in a verse, as it is called. When that is once known, however, the rest of the syllables will arrange themselves.

We learn that this Lay has been inserted in its primitive state by the present editor, in order to fulfill a wish formed by his friend Mr. Way, of exhibiting 'a specimen of the poetical style which prevailed in England, at the time when many of the French Fabliaux were composed;' and it must be allowed that Mr. Ellis has in every respect performed, with pious zeal, the editorial task assigned to him by his deceased friend; of whom, in the appendix, he has drawn a very amiable and interesting picture. He has also embellished the publication with critical remarks, which are the genuine offspring of reading, reflection, and good taste.

This volume contains 12 or 14 tales; and the notes continue to afford much information respecting this species of writing. Dr. B-y.

Art. IX. *Observations on the Manners and Customs of the Egyptians, the overflowing of the Nile and its Effects;* with Remarks on the Plague, and other Subjects. Written during a Residence of twelve Years in Cairo and its Vicinity. By John Antes, Esq. of Fulnec, in Yorkshire. Illustrated with a Map of Egypt. 4to. pp. 139. 10s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale. 1800 *.

It has lately been obviously remarked that the circumstances of the times have added a peculiar interest to that which was ever felt respecting the singular country of Egypt. To the lovers of antient history and antiquities, it has long proved an inexhaustible field of curiosity and conjecture. We now regard it as a theatre on which our national glory has received

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* This work has accidentally lain unnoticed in a heap of other books, or it would have been sooner announced to our readers.

a vast

a vast accession; and, as our successes in that country have greatly contributed to the termination of the momentous contest with France, popular attention must be strongly excited towards it. The accounts of travellers in Egypt have hitherto proved uncertain and unsatisfactory; and most of the recent publications of this nature have tended to discredit each other: but we have here before us, in a plain narrative, the observations of a person who had resided long enough in the country to form a correct judgment on different objects of inquiry, and who seems to write without bias to any of the hypothetical notions which have perverted the evidence of other writers.

After having noticed the facility of acquiring information in European countries, Mr. Antes says;

'But this is quite otherwise in Egypt. Travellers there, though they may be otherwise very well informed, and may have all the advantages of learning, commonly know nothing of the language of the country, which is Arabic. They must, therefore, address themselves to an European to be their interpreter, or hire a Greek or an Armenian for that purpose. These latter are, upon the whole, not sensible of the importance of giving always a correct and satisfactory answer: they are, perhaps, at the same time, as well as many of the Europeans, ignorant where to apply for proper information. As long as I was at Grand Cairo, I was not acquainted with any Europeans residing there, who were furnished with learning sufficient for this purpose; though otherwise well informed for their sphere of life. All the information they could give was what they had gathered in the narrow circle of their acquaintance. Supposing even, that a few merchants, in the way of commerce, had formed an acquaintance with some one or other of the most learned in that country, as I also had done; yet these people are either ill-tempered, or unwilling to inform Europeans of the truth, or such intolerable boasters, magnifying every thing which they think may add the least to their honour, that very little dependance can be had upon their information; and, indeed, having by long experience learned to know the disposition of most of the Arabs in this particular, it has made me mistrust the whole account of their ancient and modern history. There are still Arabic writers of chronicles at Grand Cairo, who will give the most boasting accounts of a trifling and insignificant fight between the Egyptian Beys, where, perhaps, five or six out of several thousands were killed; which, I am sure, if they should be read some hundred years hence, would appear to be greater battles than any one fought between the King of Prussia and the Austrians in the seven years war.'

Some passages are quoted from M. Volney and M. Savary, which are clearly proved to be incorrect; and indeed the general credit of these travellers is strongly attacked by Mr. Antes. Of Mr. Bruce he speaks more respectfully; and he appears to consider that traveller's account of Abyssinia as authentic.

Mr. Antes confirms the facts respecting the Psylli, or Serpent-eaters, without attempting to account for their power over poisonous reptiles. He suggests, however, that they may be acquainted with some odorous substance of which serpents are fond, as cats are of valerian, and rats and mice of oil of rhodium; and that, by carrying this inticement about their persons, they may attract the animals. He states, with confidence, that these men are not afraid of the bites of serpents and scorpions; and that he has often seen them bitten without danger, when dogs and cats have expired in a short time under the wounds of the same reptiles.

The author next describes the routes of the Caravans to Nubia, and to the interior parts of Africa, from which a slave-trade is carried on with Cairo.

The plague, Mr. Antes thinks, is generally imported into Egypt from Smyrna or Constantinople:

'During the twelve years of my abode in that country, which was from the 13th of January, 1770, to the 26th of the same month, 1782, the plague was three times there. At my arrival at Alexandria there were symptoms of it, which soon afterwards spread, and it became very violent there, as well as at Rosetta, and other parts of Lower Egypt: but, besides a very few accidents, it did not reach Cairo so as to become general. But the next year, 1771, it was brought again into the country by some Mameluks from Constantinople, and raged with great violence, as well at Grand Cairo, as in all the Lower, and in some parts of Upper Egypt: but, as the Russian war broke out at that time, by which all communication between Constantinople and Smyrna, in Turkish bottoms, was entirely cut off, the plague was kept perfectly out of the country during that period. At the same time there was but little of it at Constantinople; but, mean while, it visited Bagdad and Bussora, where it had not been before for time immemorial. In the year 1781, it was brought, first to Alexandria, thence to Rosetta, and so on to Grand Cairo, by some Jews, who, having bought a chest of old clothes at Smyrna, where it raged very furiously at that time, brought it to Egypt to be sold at Grand Cairo. As soon as this chest was opened at the three different custom-houses, the infection immediately took place, and spread so as to become general in a very short time. That the infection will remain in such articles for years together, and be conveyed to any part, is a well known fact. In this way the plague once remained inactive in Cairo a whole year. The fact was this: a Damascene merchant had two black women slaves who died of the plague; he very imprudently had their clothes locked up in a chest, without first airing them. About the same time of the following year, he bought two new black slaves, and dressed them in these clothes, by which they immediately caught the infection, and afterwards spread it through the whole country.'

Concerning the effect of the warm weather in stopping the progress of the plague, we are here told:

'The

'The natural cause of the plague ceasing about June in Egypt, is the great heat; Fahrenheit's thermometer, at that time, standing generally at 90 or 92 degrees in the shade; and that this must be the cause, will appear by the following fact. In the year 1781, the plague broke out about the middle of April, and increased with such rapidity and virulence, that sometimes one thousand people died of it in one day at Grand Cairo; bnt, about the middle of May, the wind shifted to the east, which occasioned a few days violent heat, in consequence of which it immediately diminished; and though, as the weather became again cooler, the plague did not leave the country before the end of June, yet it never encreased to the same degree as before, but continued dwindling away, till it ceased entirely when the summer heat became regular. It has always been observed in Egypt, that a great degree of heat, if even but for a few days, has this effect; but this time was very remarkable. It has several times fallen under my own immediate observation, that vessels came to Alexandria from other parts of Turkey, with many people on board affected by the plague, after that period, but the infection never took; and even the patients who came on shore infected with that disorder frequently recovered. These are facts which may always be proved at Grand Cairo, or any part of Egypt, and they seem to contradict entirely that notion which I have observed in many authors, viz. that the plague was nothing but a putrid fever in the highest degree; but a great degree of heat would rather increase than diminish a putrid fever. Observing this effect of natural heat, I have sometimes thought whether the same degree of artificial heat, so as to occasion a constant perspiration, might not be of more benefit, even to those infected by the disorder, than heating medicines applied for the same purpose? But, as I make no pretensions to medical knowledge, I will leave this to others to determine.'

On the means of prevention, we meet with the following curious fact, which confirms the jovial prophylactic plan of our countryman, Dr. Hodges:

'The Friars de Propaganda Fide, at Grand Cairo, also perform quarantine; but they always appoint two of their number to visit the sick, and to administer extreme unction to those of their persuasion who are dying: and it happens but seldom, that any of these visitors die of the plague, which constantly inclines them to make a miracle of it. The only precaution they take is, to drink a great quantity of brandy, as much, and often more than they well can bear, without dishonouring their profession. A Venetian doctor, long resident at Grand Cairo, never performed quarantine, and even visited people who were sick of the plague, but never caught it himself. His antidote was likewise to take so much brandy, that he was seldom free from its effects: perhaps the increase of perspiration, occasioned by the use of the liquor, might be the cause. It seems that brandy supplies, in this case, what a great degree of heat would naturally do. A timorous person, who is in constant fear and apprehension, will be much more liable to have it. It is well known that fear acts the contrary way, and will prevent or obstruct perspiration.'

Respecting

Respecting the *origin* of the plague, Mr. Antes does not seem to have formed any clear ideas: but, as he very modestly disclaims all pretensions to medical knowlege, we shall pass over this part of his work without animadversion.

The letters on the overflowing of the Nile contain many sensible remarks, but offer nothing which deserves particularly to be extracted.

Of the climate of Egypt, Mr. Antes gives a favourable account. With regard to the blindness which it is stated to produce, he remarks:

'By all these observations, and the experience of many Europeans who have from time to time resided in Egypt, it appears to be one of the most healthy countries in the universe. It is true there is a very great number of blind people in this country, and the climate seems to be pernicious to the eyes. I also observed, that putrid and bilious fevers were common in spring among some classes of people, particularly in May and June; but I think that very good reasons may be given for both. People of a gross habit, and full of humours, are often troubled with sore eyes; and indeed the bright and powerful sun, the excessive dry air in some parts of the year, the fine sand and dust during the southerly winds, cannot but be detrimental to the eye sight; but we may, however, by a little precaution, keep quite free from such disorders. Most of the blind people are of the lower class, and from their manner of living it may be easily accounted for. The soil of Egypt is every where very much impregnated with saline particles of various kinds, such as saltpetre, common salt, and one kind peculiar to that country, called by the natives, *natron*, which is exceedingly sharp. The country being so very dry, is seldom quite free from dust. The dew that falls during the overflowing of the river is pernicious to the eyes, as mentioned before. Now the lower class of people do not use the least precaution; they are often seen asleep in the open fields or streets, mostly naked, in the burning sun, quite covered with dust; they do the same in the night in the dew. It is therefore but a natural consequence that they should be afflicted with sore eyes, and other disorders; and it is much to be wondered at that they have them not in a greater degree.'

These practical observations are followed by some conjectures (of little value) respecting the ascent of vapour, and its formation into clouds.

Mr. Antes had the misfortune of experiencing the oppressive nature of the government of Egypt, in his own person. He fell into the merciless hands of Osman Bey, in the neighbourhood of Cairo, while he was amusing himself with his fowling-piece; and he actually underwent the bastinado in resisting the extortions of this despot and his guards. As the whole account, though very interesting, would occupy too much space,

space, we shall extract that part which relates immediately to the author's feelings under this horrible punishment:

'In about half an hour the Bey arrived with all his men, and lighted flambeaus before him; he alighted, went up stairs into a room, sat down in a corner, and all his people placed themselves in a circle round him. This done, I was sent for, my chain was taken off, and I led up by two fellows. On the way up, I heard the instrument used for the bastinado rattle, and knew from that what I had to expect. Upon entering, I found a small neat Persian carpet spread for me, which was in fact a piece of civility, for the common people, when about to receive the bastinado, are thrown on the ground. The Bey again asked me, who I was? *Answ.* An Englishman. *Q.* What is your business? *Answ.* I live by what God sends (an usual Arabian phrase). He then said, throw him down: when I asked what I had done. How, you dog, answered he, dare you ask what you have done? Throw him down. The servant then threw me upon my belly, the usual position upon such occasions, that when the legs are raised up, the soles of the feet may be horizontal. They then brought a strong staff about six feet long, with a piece of an iron chain fixed to it with both ends: this chain they throw round both feet above the ancles, and then twist them together, and two fellows on each side, provided with what they call a corbage, hold up the soles of the feet by means of the stick, and so wait for their master's orders. When they had placed me in this position, an officer came and whispered into my ear, do not suffer yourself to be beaten, give him a thousand dollars and he will let you go. I reflected, that should I now offer any thing, he would probably send one of his men with me to receive it; that then I should be obliged to open my strong chest, in which I kept not only my own, but a great deal of money belonging to others, which I had in trust, having received it in payment for goods sold for other merchants. The whole of this would in all probability have been taken away at the same time; and as I could not think of involving others in my misfortunes, I said, *mafish!* that is, *no money!* upon which he immediately ordered them to begin, which they did, at first, however moderately. But I at once gave myself up for lost, well knowing that my life only depended upon the caprice of a brute in human shape; and having heard and seen so many examples of unrelenting cruelty, I could not expect to fare better than others had done before me. I had, therefore, nothing left but to cast myself upon the mercy of God, commending my soul to him; and indeed I must in gratitude confess, that I experienced his support most powerfully; so that all fear of death was taken from me, and if I could have bought my life for one half-penny, I should, I believe, have hesitated to accept the offer. After they had continued beating me for some time, the officer thinking, probably, I might by this time have become more tractable, again whispered into my ear the word *money;* but now the sum was doubled. I presently answered *mafish!* They then laid on more roughly, and every stroke felt like the application of a red-hot poker. At last the same officer, thinking that though

though I had no money, I might have some fine goods, whispered again something to that effect. As I knew that elegant English fire-arms will often take their fancy, even more than money, and happened to have a neat blunderbuss, richly mounted in silver, value about 20l., I offered him that, as I could have got at it without opening my strong chest. When the Bey observed me talking with the officer, he asked him what I had said; the officer lifting up his finger, answered with a sneer, Bir Corabina! that is, one blunderbuss. Upon which the Bey said, Ettrup il kelp! that is, beat the dog. Now they began to lay on with all their might. At first the pain was excruciating, but after some time my feeling grew numb, and it was like beating a bag of wool: when at last he saw that no money was offered, he began to think that I might be poor; and as I had, however, done nothing to deserve punishment, he at last said, Saibu! that is, let him go. Upon which they loosened my feet; I was obliged to walk down again into my prison, and the chain was again put about my neck.'

The volume concludes with speculations on the commercial advantages which Egypt might derive from its situation, under the direction of an intelligent government. These, however, are now of little importance, because the terms of pacification between England and France have condemned that fine country to remain in a state of barbarism. How unfortunate is it that the mutual jealousy of two great rival powers should thus oppose the general interests of mankind; which would be so highly benefited by the civilization and commercial prosperity of Egypt, as an independent State!

Fer.

ART. X. *A Treatise on the Chemical History and Medical Powers of some of the most celebrated Mineral Waters*; with practical Remarks on the Aqueous Regimen. To which are added, Observations on the Use of cold and warm bathing. By William Saunders, M. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. pp. 438. 8s. Boards. W. Phillips. 1800.

As a good book on the properties of mineral waters, adapted to the present state of chemistry and of medical opinions, has been greatly wanted, we are happy in seeing this *desideratum* so well supplied in the volume before us; which will furnish much useful information to the faculty, and must add to the extensive and well-earned reputation of its author. Mr. Kirwan's treatise on this subject, though highly valuable to chemists, was not calculated for practical physicians. In the present publication, both these objects are united; and the principal facts are detailed with a degree of correctness and perspicuity, which will render them accessible to the majority of the profession.

The volume opens with a view of the properties of water, considered as the basis of animal fluids, as well as of mineral springs; and the foreign contents of mineral waters are next discussed. These chapters contain facts generally known and admitted; and, therefore, though useful to the student, they furnish no room for extracts or remarks.

The author next treats on the properties of water, as it is obtained from springs, rivers, &c. and afterward enters into the consideration of particular mineral waters. The order in which Dr. Saunders treats of them consists in beginning with the most simple degree of foreign impregnation, and proceeding to the most complicated.

Malvern Spring is first noticed, as the head of the remarkably pure waters. After having enumerated its medical uses, from Dr. Wall's publication on the subject, Dr. Saunders informs us that the greater part of its good effects are probably to be attributed to its *purity, as water.* It is much employed as an external application, in inflammations of the eyes, scrophulous sores, and cutaneous eruptions.

St. Winifred's Well, at Holywell in Flintshire, is celebrated for similar properties.

The *Bristol Hotwell* is described as 'a pure, warm, slightly acidulated spring.' The principal medical effects of this water, also, are attributed to its purity: but, respecting its use in pulmonary consumption, Dr. Saunders observes;

'Much difference of opinion has arisen on the supposed virtues of Bristol water in this disease, and from the number of unsuccessful cases among those that frequent this place, many have been disposed to deny any peculiar power to this, superior to any simple water. It is not easy to determine how much may be owing to the favourable situation and mild temperate climate which Bristol enjoys; but it cannot be doubted that the Hotwell water, though by no means a cure for consumption, alleviates some of the most harrassing symptoms in this formidable disease. It is particularly efficacious in moderating the thirst, the dry burning heat of the hands and feet, the partial night sweats, and the symptoms that are peculiarly hectical; and thus in the earlier stages of phthisis, it may materially contribute to a compleat re-establishment of health; and even in the latter periods it may considerably relieve, when the prospect of a cure has long been doubtful, if not hopeless. We are not yet fully acquainted with the medical virtues which we may expect from the union of a small quantity of carbonic acid with water; but from comparing the effects resulting from this gaseous acid when in a larger dose, and giving very sensible properties to the water with which it is combined, there appears to be some reason for attributing to this substance, a part at least of the virtues of Bristol water.'

Matlock Water, which is another of the pure and tepid kind, is chiefly useful as a bath.

Of

Of the celebrated springs at *Buxton*, Dr. Saunders gives the following general analysis;

'The general result therefore of the analysis of Buxton water is the following: it is a remarkably pure water, and possesses no peculiar sensible properties except that of a higher temperature than all the adjacent springs, and as this circumstance is invariable in every season, the source of the heat depends on some internal cause, in which it differs from the cold natural waters. The little solid matter which it contains is such as is found in every common spring, and is of the most inactive kind. It holds in solution, however, a small quantity of azotic gas, as this air is very imperfectly soluble in water. In this respect only does the chemical analysis of Buxton exhibit any thing different from the pump water in common use.'

We shall extract the account given of the medical properties of these waters, both as important in itself, and as a specimen of the judicious manner in which Dr. S. avails himself of the labours of preceding writers on this subject:

'Buxton water is found of considerable service in a number of symptoms of defective digestion and derangement of the alimentary organs, consequent to a life of high indulgence and intemperance. A judicious use of this simple remedy will often relieve the distressing symptoms of heart-burn, flatulency, and sickness; and, if persevered in, will encrease the appetite, render the secretions more regular, and improve the general health and spirits that are so intimately connected with the functions of the digestive organs. A large number of the invalids that resort to Buxton are of this class. The water appears to produce various effects on the bowels. Not unfrequently a spontaneous diarrhœa is the consequence of its use for some days, and this is always salutary; but it is more common, especially in habits where the action of the bowels is naturally sluggish, for costiveness to come on during a course of the water, which must be remedied by aperient medicines. Another class of disorders much relieved by the internal use of Buxton water, is the painful complaints of the kidnies and bladder connected with the formation of calculus. The pain of these affections is much relieved by the water, and its use as a bath will often assist its employment as an internal medicine. The comparative purity of the water may here be a principal cause of its efficacy. Buxton has been much recommended in various cases of gout, especially where the high inflammation of particular limbs has gone off, and where it has left either a number of dyspeptic symptoms, or a rigidity or impaired action in the seat of the disease. In this disorder, however, the use of Buxton water seems to me to be very ambiguous, and seldom admissible. We are advised by Dr. Denman always to add some aromatic tincture to the water taken in these cases, without which it would not be safe or adviseable: but it appears to me generally hazardous to employ such means of qualifying the medicinal powers of a mineral water, as highly apt to bring on a habit of accustoming the stomach to the excessive stimulus of ardent spirit, under the insidious form of

of a stomachic medicine, and can hardly fail of doing much more injury than will be counteracted by the good produced by any mineral water so exhibited. Indeed I think it may be laid down as a general rule, that the only additions which it is adviseable to use, are, either that of mere temperature, which is often necessary in giving the cold medicinal waters to delicate stomachs, or that of an additional qnantity of any of the natural ingredients, as for instance where a purging chalybeate may be strengthened in its operation by some vitriolated magnesia or soda. Sometimes, however, the stomach of a gouty patient will bear the Buxton water in its simple state, and will derive much advantage from its gradual action on the general habit. As an external application in gout, Buxton water is sometimes found of service, though in general the warmer temperature of that of Bath is the best fitted to restore healthy functions to parts so diseased.'—

'The doses prescribed by the earlier practitioners were, according to the custom of former times, much more abundant than are employed at present, and would make the modern directions quite superfluous. Now, however, it is considered as a full course to take two glasses of about a third of a pint each before breakfast; interposing between the two a little gentle exercise, and to repeat the same quantity again between breakfast and dinner. It is seldom taken medicinally in the evening.'

A copious account is given of the chemical analysis of the *Bath* water. The general result is thus mentioned:

'From the various chemical investigations that have been mentioned, we may form this general conclusion concerning the composition of Bath water; that it contains a good deal of calcareous salts, which render it hard and unfit for domestic purposes; that it holds in solution but little, if any, neutral alkaline salts, and therefore is scarcely saline; that it is in a very slight degree impregnated with carbonic acid; in a still slighter with iron, and as it should appear, only when hot from the spring; and that it holds suspended a small portion of siliceous earth, which will deserve notice from the chemist, as a curious, though not a singular occurrence. The precise quantities of all these ingredients it is not easy to determine, on account of the difference in the result of experiments made by different persons, none of which are at all improbable, as there are many waters that contain less foreign matter than the lowest estimation, and more than the highest.

'Perhaps we shall make a pretty near approximation to the truth, if we reckon a gallon of the King's Bath water to contain, for its *gaseous* contents, about 8 cubic inches of carbonic acid, and the same quantity of air nearly azotic: for the *solid*, about 80 grains, in the whole of which, perhaps one half may be sulphat and muriat of soda, $15\frac{1}{2}$ grains of siliceous earth, and the remainder selenite, carbonat of lime, and a very minute portion, scarcely appretiable, of oxyd of iron.'

Dr. Saunders thinks that one of the most important uses of Bath-water is its external application; and that its effects, in this

this respect, do not differ from those of common waters heated to the same temperature.—Respecting the *internal* use of this spring, the author says;

'The general indications of the propriety of using this medicinal water are in those cases where a gentle, gradual, and permanent stimulus is required, and where there is little to be feared from the sudden and transient heat, and increase of pulse that so often attend its exhibition. Bath water may certainly be considered as a chalybeate, in which the iron is very small in quantity, but in a highly active form; and the degree of temperature is in itself a stimulus, often of considerable powers.'

For a more particular view of the diseases in which the Bath-water is serviceable, we must refer our readers to the book.

Dr. Saunders now proceeds to consider the *Simple Saline* waters. Of these, the *Sedlitz* or *Seydschutz* water is the first mentioned. Among other substances, it is strongly impregnated with vitriolated magnesia, or Epsom salt, to which it principally owes its medical properties. It is an active purgative, and is useful in bilious and hypochondriacal disorders.—The *Epsom* water is another of this class, but very mild.

Dr. Saunders next treats of *Sea-water*, the properties of which are too well known to require any particular notice here.

Seltzer spring is described as saline, slightly alkaline, and highly acidulated with carbonic acid. The effects of this fashionable beverage are known, we suppose, to most of our well-informed readers.

Chalybeate Waters form the next class: but there is so little difference among those of this description, in our country, that they scarcely admit of more than a chemical discrimination.

The *Spa* and *Pyrmont* waters are noticed with distinction, as highly carbonated Chalybeates.

Those waters which contain a portion of purgative salt, with carbonic acid and iron, are next mentioned: such as *Cheltenham* and *Scarborough*, in this country; and they are said to be chiefly useful in the cure of glandular obstructions, especially those which affect the liver, and the chylopöetic viscera.—The thermal springs of *Vichy*, in France, and *Carlsbad* in Bohemia, are somewhat similar in their composition. Of the latter, the author says:

'The general result of the analysis of these waters therefore is, that they are all considerably complex in their chemical nature, and contain several of the more active of those principles which appear to give medical powers to any natural water. They are all more or less thermal, and possess a heat several degrees higher than the animal temperature. They are all acidulated with carbonic acid, but at the same

same time contain a very notable portion of soda and calcareous earth: they besides hold in solution a sensible quantity of Glauber's salt. With regard to that of the iron, it is probably very minute, and not more than is contained in Bath water, as the circumstances of precipitation with galls appear to be very similar in each; but from the greater degree of temperature, the Caroline water will probably make a stronger chalybeate impression on the taste than even that of Bath.

'From a review of the composition of the Caroline water, compared with that of other medicinal springs, we might expect it to produce powerful and various effects upon the body, when taken internally, and this is actually the case, as appears from the best authorities. Its most obvious operation is that of exciting the action of the bowels, which it does in almost all cases when a considerable dose is taken, and it proves a purgative of great strength, and very speedy in its action.'

These waters are celebrated in many diseases; particularly in nephritic and calculous complaints.

The *Hartfell* water is selected as a specimen of the vitriolated Chalybeates, in which iron is held in union with the sulphuric acid.

The last class of mineral springs is the *Sulphureous*.

Of *Harrogate* water, the most celebrated of these, we need remark little, as we reviewed Dr. Garnett's account of it a few years ago *.

Moffat water is chiefly useful as a diuretic.

The thermal springs of *Aix la Chapelle* and *Borset*, also of this class, are described from Dr. Lucas's work.

The waters of *Barege* are said to be chiefly useful as a bath.

At the close of this part of the work, the composition of the Chalybeate waters is exhibited in a synoptical table.

In the fifth chapter, Dr. Saunders treats of the internal use of water as an article of diet, and as a medicine. We here meet with several judicious observations on its utility in dyspeptic complaints, which merit the attention of practitioners. The author seems to think that the principal efficacy of mineral waters, taken internally, depends on the quantity of this fluid which the patient is induced to swallow, by the reputation of particular springs; or, in the words of an old poem,

"The water's water: be thyself thy friend."

Chapter VI. contains observations on the external use of water; which are very just, but afford nothing new.

The volume closes with some general reflections on the effects of mineral waters, in which the superiority of *warm* over *cold* Chalybeates is particularly pointed out.

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* See Vol. xi. p. 460.

We can recommend this work to the notice of a large body of useful men; viz. practitioners in the country, who have neither leisure nor opportunities for keeping pace, in their chemical reading, with modern improvements in that science; and who will here find sufficient information to decide them in recommending the choice of watering-places to their patients,—at least to those who cannot be induced to drink sufficient water *at home.*

Fer.

ART. XI. *Dissertations on Inflammation.* By John Burns, Surgeon in Glasgow. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14 s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

IN some publications of the present day, we have observed, with regret, a tendency to that unnecessary multiplication of language which the French term *verbiage;* and we are sorry to add that the work before us affords another instance of this style of writing. Mr. Burns indeed informs us that he writes for students, who have all their knowlege to acquire on this subject: but we cannot perceive the necessity of beginning an elementary treatise on inflammation, as he has done, by telling the reader that *the objects of natural history are divided into the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms.* The commencement of Cæsar's Commentaries, "*Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres,*" would have been nearly as appropriate an exordium; or, if the author had wished to begin at a still greater distance, he might have chosen the first verse of the first chapter of the book of Genesis, with equal propriety.

From this remote deduction of the subject, we augured unfavourably of Mr. Burns's Preliminary Dissertation on some Laws of the Animal Oeconomy; which is, indeed, too short to serve instead of a system of Physiology, and too long for an Introduction to the rest of the work.—Mr. B. has attempted to revive the obsolete doctrine of an *Anima Vegetans,* in this Introduction, without seeming to be aware of its antiquity. He is not deficient in ingenuity, but it is inveloped in a cloud of words. He expresses the existence of disease by the term *action;* and, after some general reasoning on the progress and terminations of morbid actions, he presents us with a new nosological arrangement, which has the defect of generalizing too much. The whole preliminary dissertation is a specimen of the art of disguising common notions, in vague but specious language.—We should have gladly inserted his *Summary of the Laws of Action,* had it not extended to the enormous length of forty-two pages.

We

We come, at length, about the middle of the first volume,

"*Tantæ molis erat*,"——

to the *definition* and *division* of Inflammation. The definition, or rather description, differs little from that of Dr. Cullen; the division consists of *inflammatio valida*, and *inflammatio debilis*; the varieties of which, the author says, are *active* and *passive* inflammation. We confess that we cannot perceive a distinction between the species and the variety, according to Mr. Burns's too general terms.

Respecting the *Stages* and *Terminations* of Inflammation, the author's observations are just, but they contain nothing new; nor do we find that the subject is placed in a more advantageous light than was afforded by preceding writers.

In treating of the *Proximate Cause* of inflammation, the various opinions of Pathologists are examined with considerable acuteness. Rejecting them all, Mr. B. then proposes his own; which is, that inflammation depends on increased action of the vital power. We are not completely satisfied with this account; the word *action* is so vague, and the term *vital power* is so obscure, that we are not conscious of any material accession of knowlege from this definition. It were better to say at once, παντα ὑπολημψις; and to rest satisfied with a plain description of obvious phænomena, the theory of which is at present beyond our reach.

The erratic mode of expression, employed by Mr. Burns, has led him into a considerable error respecting the nature of adhesive inflammation. We shall quote his own words, in order to give the reader an idea of his peculiar style:

'Adhesion appears to be a more delicate process, than joining parts with mucus, lymph, or any intermediate substance whatever. It appears to be nothing less than the action of that power, which is always operating in the system, and restoring the waste of the body; but, from the circumstances under which it is exercised, and the causes which tend to make it imperfect, the substance which is thrown out is not always perfectly similar to the adjoining parts, at least in extensive wounds.

'This process, which, when carried on in health, is called nutrition, has, in disease, been named the adhesive inflammation. But the term is improper; for adhesion never takes place, until inflammation subsides; and it often is produced without any previous inflammation, and quite independent of it, without heat, without pain, and without extensive redness. Whenever a wound inflames, its lips separate, and pain is produced: when the inflammation is removed, then the parts adhere, and the pain ceases. Adhesion is, in this case, synonymous with resolution; indeed, resolution is almost always attended with adhesion. There is, however, this difference betwixt them, that adhesion may take place without previous in-

flammation, whereas resolution implies the existence of that disease. If, however, inflammation has preceded adhesion, then it is exactly the same with resolution, being a termination of the inflammatory action. He, then, who would talk of the adhesive inflammation, is just as much mistaken, as he who would speak of the resolving inflammation.'

The term *adhesive inflammation* has never been employed in the sense which is here assigned to it: by this phrase, must be understood that species of inflammation in which the symptoms are suspended by a partial effusion of coagulable lymph, and a consequent union of the sides of the inflamed parts: but in which, the disposition to disease is renewed in the adjacent parts, where it is successively relieved by fresh effusion, and subsequent adhesion. This process, though repeated, does not always prevent the disease from terminating fatally; of which we have a striking example in peritoneal inflammation. It is, therefore, entirely different from *resolution*, which implies a total relief from inflammation.

It would be impossible to follow the author through the mazes of his pages, without transcribing more than our readers would find agreeable: but we shall extract his account of *Death*, further to justify the preceding observations on his peculiar style:

'Death has been considered as merely a privation of life, or a cessation of action; but this negative state does not constitute absolute death. Death is the descending of the vital principle of one species, to the condition of that of another of a lower degree, and therefore, must imply activity, or a state of change and conversion, referable to an action of the vital principle itself. There is, however, this intimate connection betwixt a cessation of action, or apparent death, and real or absolute death, that when the vital principle is not employed in some other action, it has a natural tendency to assume the action of descent, or sink down to a lower species. This descent would appear to take place more or less rapidly, according to the absolute quantity of life which exists together, in the organ or part which is to die; for wherever the quantity is very small before the action of descent commences, then it takes place very quickly. Hence, when a number of organic particles are contained in any portion, and have their life strong, and in due quantity, then they retain it for a considerable time, and descend only very slowly, at the same time that they are absorbed and converted by the living power of the vessels which take them up, into a substance different from their former condition. But if their life be in too small quantity, or only a few insulated particles be taken to act on, then the descent takes place quickly. Hence, if we kill an animal instantly, and cut out a muscle, it will retain its animal life much longer, if the animal be healthy and strong, than if it be weak and diseased. Hence likewise, an animal will putrify soonest, if it die from the action

action of any of the agentes dissimiles, than from other causes; or, in other words, the interval betwixt apparent and real death is shorter.'

We leave the reader to form his own estimate of the quantity of real information conveyed in this passage, and shall proceed to the consideration of the second volume.

The sequel of the second Dissertation, with which this volume opens, treats of the *Cure* of inflammation. Here we meet with little that is remarkable, excepting the author's objections to the use of opium: he says;

'That, in every case of inflammation, opiates are hurtful, is what no one can assert; and their utility will afterwards be fully manifested. But, that opium is useful, or even harmless, in the inflammatio valida, which we are at present considering, cannot be admitted; because daily experience, independent of every theory, proves, that, by their use, the general fever is increased, and the local action aggravated. Even given as a preventative of inflammation, after operations, anodynes are almost uniformly hurtful, producing restlessness, heat, and thirst, and afterwards head-ache, sickness, and frequently troublesome vomiting. I have therefore now, after almost every operation, laid aside their use, and find, that the diseased action, subsequent to the local irritation, runs its progress with much less disturbance, and is much milder, and shorter, than where anodynes have been administered; and, in general, the sleep is much more composed, and always more refreshing. I have therefore, after lithotomy, amputation, the extirpation of the mammæ, and after labours, in almost every instance, omitted them.'

We apprehend that these remarks are not consonant to general experience.

Observations on the cure of *Ulcers* next occur, which are detailed with more precision and clearness than any other part of the book, and which we can safely recommend to the attention of Students.

Mr. Burns afterward treats of the *Inflammatio debilis*, and of Mortification, in his peculiar style; the difficulty of which is more striking than its excellence. Attempts should never be made to alter known terms, without the most cogent reasons.

The third Dissertation comprehends the *Phagedenic*, and ome other species of inflammation. Of the first, Mr. Burns's definition is:

'The phagedena is a suppurating sore, dependent upon the application of a peculiar contagion. No granulations are formed, but both sets of vessels yield a thin fluid. The surface of the sore has a jagged appearance, dependent upon the irregularity of the absorption, and not upon the deposition of organic particles, or granulations. The colour of the surface is dark, but clear, or fiery. The

surrounding integuments are erysipelatous. The discharge is thin and serous, and the pain considerable. This is divisible into two varieties; first, the true phagedenic, which does not go deeper than the skin, but spreads rapidly along the surface. This kind frequently stops in its progress suddenly, and skins over as fast as it spread. Second, the noma, or penetrating phagedena, which extends deeply, penetrating sometimes perpendicularly down through the cellular substance to the muscular fascia; at other times, proceeding more irregularly, penetrating deeper at one part than another, and having its margins ending less abruptly in the neighbouring skin. This never cicatrizes rapidly; but, sometimes, when the sore assumes a healing appearance, it snddenly becomes again diseased, and a considerable portion sloughs off. The alternation of proceeding a certain length in the cure, and relapsing, is frequently repeated, and often renders the disease very tedious.'

The method of cure recommended is, according to the nature of the morbid surface, either to destroy it by caustics, or to stimulate by the application of opium in powder, mixed with simple ointment.—This dissertation contains some very curious descriptions of anomalous ulcers, which may be perused with great advantage: but it would be unjust to the author to attempt an abridgment of what ought to be attentively considered in detail.

In the fourth Dissertation, Mr. Burns introduces to our notice a disease, which he considers as either not yet described by writers, or as improperly referred by them to the class of cancers:—he terms it the *Spongoid Inflammation.* We insert his description of it:

'This disease begins with a small colourless tumor, which, if there be no thick covering over it, such as the fascia of a muscle, or the aponeurosis of the foot, is soft and elastic, but tense if otherwise. It is at first free from uneasiness; but, by degrees, a sharp acute pain darts occasionally through it, more and more frequently, until the sensation becomes continued. For a considerable time, the tumor is smooth and even, but afterwards it projects irregularly in one or more points; and the skin at this place becomes of a livid red colour, and feels thinner. It here readily yields to pressure, but instantly bounds up again. Small openings now form in these projections, through which is discharged a thin bloody matter. Almost immediately after these tumors burst, a small fungus protrudes, like a papilla, and this rapidly increases, both in breadth and heighth, and has exactly the appearance of a carcinomatous fungus, and frequently bleeds profusely. The matter is thin, and exceedingly fœtid, and the pain becomes of the smarting kind. The integuments, for a little around these ulcers, are red, and tender. After ulceration takes place, the neighbouring glands swell, and assume exactly the spongy qualities of the primary tumor. If the patient still survive the disease in its present advanced progress, similar tumors form in other parts of the body, and the patient dies hectic.

'On examining the affected parts after death or amputation, the tumor itself is found to consist of a soft substance, somewhat like the brain, of a greyish colour, and greasy appearance, with thin membranous-looking divisions running through it, and cells, or abscesses, in different places, containing a thin bloody matter, occasionally in very considerable quantity. There does not seem uniformly to be any entire cyst surrounding the tumor, for it very frequently dives down betwixt the muscles, or down to the bone, to which it often appears to adhere. The neighbouring muscles are of a pale colour, and lose their fibrous appearance, becoming more like liver than muscle. The bones are uniformly caries, when in the vicinity of these tumors. If large, they are found rough, and broken off into fragments; if small, they are generally soft and porous. This tumor is sometimes caused by external violence; but often it appears without any evident cause.'

The only remedy proposed for this disease is early extirpation. Most of the cases related at length by Mr. Burns, to support his view of the disease, appear to be only instances of the white caries; a disease well understood among the surgeons of this country.

Dissertation V. treats of *Scrophulous Inflammation;* and, as it contains less affectation of new terms than most other parts of the work, it will be read with more pleasure, and more benefit; though, on such a subject, novelty is not to be expected. Mr. Burns has found the nitrous acid useful in scrophulous ulcers.

In the last Dissertation, we are presented with a view of *Cancerous Inflammation;* and here we meet with many judicious remarks, unfortunately obscured by the new language: which we hope the author will employ more sparingly in his promised additional volume, containing an account of *Venereal Inflammation.* While the medical public are pressing forwards with essential improvements, they will feel impatience when the *Opinionum Commenta* occupy too large a space in new books.

Fer.

ART. XII. *Dramas and other Poems, of the Abate Pietro Metastasio.* Translated from the Italian by John Hoole. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Otridge and Son. 1800.

WE have felt considerable compunction at being so long prevented, by a crowd of other articles, from giving our opinion of this pleasing publication:—but our concern was somewhat abated by the recollection that six of the dramas of Metastasio, rendered into English by this diligent Italian translator, had gone through our hands many years ago; and that, as those six dramas constitute a part of the present volumes, our delay might be deemed more excusable.

Mr. Hoole manifests that he is a very honest editor, by pointing out to English readers, in his preface, all that the most severe Italian critics on his Hero have urged against him, after his decease. From some of these charges, however, Mr. H. might have defended his original author; and, without flattering him, or deceiving the public, he might have safely said that Metastasio was regarded as the most perfect lyric poet that modern languages and modern times have known. Homer, Virgil, and Milton, have had their censurers, and so has Metastasio:—but who shall dispute the palm with him in writing dramas for music that will bear perusal in the closet, when separated from that exquisite composition, and those bewitching vocal talents, which rendered an audience indifferent and inattentive to the poetical merit of his pieces?—Apostolo Zeno in Italy, and Quinault in France, are the only competitors of Metastasio; and Italy has long preferred his dramas to those of his learned predecessors. Apostolo Zeno had great judgment, but little poetry. Quinault had great genius and true poetry: but his language and the plan of his operas were less favourable to music; and the music itself, with which Lulli invested his dramas, has long since been pronounced barbarous by all Europe.

The writings of the imperial laureat, however, have lately been so amply detailed, and their merits so thoroughly discussed, in the memoirs of his life by Dr. Burney *, that little more remains to be said on the subject. To dissect, and tear limb from limb, productions that have so long stood the test of time, would be cruelty to a deceased author who constantly pleased and delighted the age in which he lived. If improvements and refinements in the musical drama have been discovered since his death, he is no more blameable for not having been the first to find them, than are his contemporaries for having been contented without them. The Egyptian kings, indeed, we are told, were tried after their decease: but few *authors* are so formidable as to stop sufficient inquiry into their merits during life.

In looking back at our examination of the first six dramas of Metastasio, of which Mr. H. published his translation in 1767 †, we were rather surprized at the severity with which we had treated *Artaxerxes;* a drama which we find to have been more frequently set and sung in Italy than any of his other pieces. The music of Vinci at Rome, of Hasse at Venice, and the voice of Farinelli in London, had silenced

* See Rev. Vol. xx. N. S. p. 373. † See Rev. vol. xxxvii. p. 81.

poetical

poetical critics: but we are not sure that Dr. Arne's bald version had not lowered this drama in our opinion, beyond the power of Mr. Hoole's better translation to lift it up. It obtained, however, more success on our stage than any English opera ever had, in spite of its dishabille. We *now* see blemishes and incongruities in this composition; yet the language, conduct, and sentiments are such, in the original, that they soften rigour; except in the character of *Artabano*, which is outrageously atrocious. The faults in the other personages arise from excess of virtue.

To the *Olympiad* we were more lenient:—indeed there is a scene in that drama, which all Europe has allowed to be exquisitely beautiful and affecting; and the duet of that opera has been recommended by Rousseau and other opera critics, as a model of perfection.

Titus had disarmed us; and this drama, as well as its hero, continues still to be *the delight of human kind.*

Demophoon, as an opera, has always retained its favour; and we still think as highly of it as we did 30 years ago. In the year 1770, Mr. Hoole brought it on the stage as an English tragedy, under the title of *Timanthes;* with as much success as pieces written in a taste so different from our own usually gain.

Besides the operas of which a version had been previously published by Mr. H. we have now in the 1st vol. *the Dream of Scipio;* with five Cantatas, the most elegant productions of the kind, when they were first written, and when Cantatas were in fashion. The *Dream of Scipio* is too serious and philosophical for public exhibition, and for music: but it should be remembered that it was written as a festal song, or birth-day ode, for a court; and not for a mixed audience, before whom bustle, stage business, and variety of interesting events are necessary to keep attention awake, and to please all palates. The reasoning and sentiments, the Roman *costumi*, and the knowlege of the great characters introduced as interlocutors, manifest the abilities of a superior writer; and it must reflect honour on the poet's memory, that he never lost an opportunity, on these occasions, of giving such lessons of morality, wisdom, and virtue, as great personages seldom receive in a drawing-room under a royal roof.—The *Advice* reads best, among the Cantatas. How they all sing in the original, those lovers of music best know who have heard them performed by Pacchierotti, Rubinelli, or Marchesi, to the music of *Sarti*, *Cimarosa*, and *Paesiello.*

Vol. II. All the pieces in this volume are new translations, except *Demophoon*, which was one of the dramas in Mr. Hoole's first

first publication. The rest are the following: *Achilles in Scyros; Adrian in Syria; Dido; Ætius;* the *Uninhabited Island;* and *the Triumph of Glory.* All these operas, except the first, have been often performed in England; and they have been the favourite melo-dramas in Italy, Germany, Spain, Portugal, and all the northern capitals. The present translation of them confers a real benefit on lovers of music, in our metropolis, who frequent the opera without a sufficient knowlege of the Italian language to accompany the performers in the original. It will likewise enable them to form a more faithful idea of the beauties of Metastasio's poetry and sentiments, than they can ever acquire from the hasty and mangled translations which are purchased at the opera house.

The Triumph of Glory is a beautiful and spirited Cantata on the subject of Achilles in disguise. As it seems also to be an abridgement of the drama written on that fable, we shall present it to our readers; in order to exemplify the translator's success in these smaller pieces, which, in the original, are gems of the highest polish:

'THE TRIUMPH OF GLORY.

The Son of Thetis languish'd out his hours
In exile sweet; 'midst Scyros' slothful bowers,
The slave of LOVE; of LOVE, who proudly view'd
So great a prisoner to his sway subdu'd;
To keep him still his own he every art bestow'd,
And hourly some new charms in Deidamia show'd:
He fram'd, in every movement of the fair,
Each word she spoke,
Each simple, unaffected look,
Fresh toils that might Achilles' heart ensnare.
The dwelling teem'd with all that could the sense allure,
And fix his reign secure.
Throughout the splendid walls around
Soft sighs and gentle voices sound;
And languid strains, that pity move,
And whispers of protesting love.
In silent groves, the friends to stol'n delight,
Seducing zephyrs play:
The feather'd songsters tune their wanton lay:
'Twixt rock and rock the waters take
Their limped course, and murmuring break,
While earth and Heaven, all, all to love invite!
In female vesture, heedless of his praise,
The enamour'd Hero wastes his days:
Nor arms nor battle here employ'd his care,
Nor spoils nor triumphs gain'd in war;
But sweet addresses, joy inciting;
Faint repulses, oft inviting;

Contention,

Contention, urg'd in sportive mood;
The promise given and renew'd;
Complaining, pardon and offence,
And flattery, that blinds the sense:
A thousand toys, by lovers serious deem'd,
But childish follies by the world esteem'd.

" With thee alone, to live or die,
My hope is now repos'd;"
Full oft he said, while, with a sigh,
His melting words were clos'd.

" For ever thine, in thee alone"
(He cried) " my soul can rest;"
While round the fair his arms were thrown,
And clasp'd her to his breast.

' But GLORY (who beheld with jealous eyes
How LOVE from him usurp'd the prize,
A heart, long-time to him decreed by Fate,)
Achilles seeks, reproves his abject state;
His spirit dead to honour's charms,
And sets before his view Ulysses sheath'd in arms.
As from a trance Achilles wakes,
Rous'd with the stern rebuke and gleaming steel, he burns
With conscious anger, while by turns
The flushing colour dies, and now his cheek forsakes:
Swift from his limbs he tears the weeds of shame,
For arms he calls—With sword and shield
He now departs to seek the field,
And heal each past disgrace that stain'd a noble name.
But lo! where Deidamia fair,
Lost in love and wild despair,
Breathless, sighing,
Fainting, dying,
Pursues his flight, and vainly tries
To vent those fond complaints her faultering tongue denies.
Yet could her words have found their way,
The conquering dame had won her lover's stay,
" Ah! princess," (he the weeping maid address'd,)
Unjust the transports that distract thy breast.
If thou would'st have me bear a soul so base,
A loss like mine were easy to replace:
Would'st thou in me a hero view,
Let me a hero's steps pursue.
Farewell!—to me for ever shalt thou prove"—
This firm farewell of parting love
Her gentle spirit ill could bear:
A tremor seiz'd the hapless fair;
Through all her veins a sudden chillness flies,
And mute and motionless she lies!
What shall Achilles now? While GLORY there bestows
Laurels and palms, here LOVE his Deidamia shows

All

All pale and senseless? THAT his heart proclaims
Irresolute and weak, and THIS as cruel blames.
The hero and the lover both contend,
And both his agonizing bosom rend:
The lover weeps; the hero burns;
He now departs, and now returns:
His feet, as changing passions sway,
Reluctant this or that obey;
At length one generous effort made,
And all his virtue summon'd to his aid,
He curbs the pitying thoughts that fain would rise,
Awhile he silent stands, debates, resolves and flies.

'Tis true, that sorrowing still he flies,
But GLORY at his side attends;
GLORY, that tears of sorrow dries,
And LOVE beneath his empire bends.

Capricious thus his rule below
The winged archer God maintains;
Who meets him falls beneath the foe,
While he who flies the conquest gains.'

Vol. III. contains five operas, an oratorio, and eight Cantatas. Though these dramas, viz. *Zenobia*, *Themistocles*, *Siroes*, *Regulus*, and *Romulus and Hersilia*, have not been in such high and constant favour as some of the author's early productions, yet they have all their several merits; and each delineates and recommends some virtue of morality or fortitude to be supported, amid all the conflicts and trials of adverse fortune.—*Zenobia* exemplifies *filial obedience*, and *conjugal fidelity* to a husband whom her father's situation and entreaties obliged her to marry, though she was long passionately attached to a fond lover of her own and her parent's choice.—*Themistocles* displays *gratitude* to his benefactor, and *love for his country*, in spite of ill-treatment and ingratitude for heroic actions and signal services to the state.—*Siroes* affords an useful lesson to fathers, whose blind partiality for an unworthy younger son inclines them to treat with cruelty an elder brother, though his fidelity and affection are proof against all disgrace and suffering.—The drama of *Regulus* (the author's favourite child) cannot be accused of effeminacy, nor called a mere *sing-song* business. If it has any fault, indeed, it is that of being too robust and nervous a production for the lyric stage. Greek and Roman *patriotism* has been the foundation on which the author has built three of his best-written dramas, for declamation or the closet: but they have not been favourites of composers, nor of singers, nor of the musical public. The three plays to which we allude are those of *Cato*, *Themistocles*, and *Regulus*; in which the poet has preserved a strong historical resemblance,

blance, but has varied the heroism, dignity, and virtue, of the several patriots, in such a manner as to keep them distinct from each other. We admire the resources of Shakspeare in sustaining the character of *Falstaff* through three separate plays; and it was, perhaps, an enterprize of not less difficulty to support three similar heroes, renowned for the same virtue of patriotism, through as many different dramas, without monotony of sentiment, or deficiency of interest in the plot and characters. These personages must necessarily resemble each other, in preferring their country to their own comforts and happiness, to their children, and even to the preservation of their own lives; as well as in the heroic manner in which they bore up against adverse fortune;—yet this excellent poet has not copied himself in bringing them on the stage. The character of *Cato* is severe and inflexible; that of *Themistocles* is grand, tender, and resolute; and that of *Regulus* is magnanimous, rigid, and almost divine.

Mr. Hoole has had so much experience in translation, that we had no doubt of his accuracy in transferring into our language his author's genuine sentiments; and therefore we read these pieces as original English productions:—the fairest way perhaps of judging of the merit of poetical translation, where equivalents must perpetually take place of the literal import of words and phrases. That the songs are less mellifluous than the dialogue, and less lyrical, will not be surprizing to any judge of the comparative euphony of the Italian and our own language. In the play of *Regulus*, the character and sentiments are so congenial to our love of rational liberty and of our country, that in our opinion this drama may be *read* with as much pleasure as Addison's *Cato*.

The oratorio of *Joseph*, which follows the secular dramas in this volume, renders the well-known Scripture story so interesting and affecting, that few persons will be able to read it without tears. Mr. Hoole seems to have taken particular pains, and with success, in translating this sacred drama.

We shall terminate our account of these volumes by the last two speeches of *Regulus*, just before he returns to Carthage, and to chains and torture, rather than be guilty of perfidy, or suffer his country to submit to the ignoble propositions of peace with which he was sent to Rome, on his parole. To the prayers of his family and friends, who represent to him what Rome has to fear 'in losing him, her father,' he replies:

> 'Let Rome reflect that father is but mortal;
> That now he stoops beneath the weight of years;
> That life creeps languid thro' his shrivell'd veins:
> That he no longer now can shed his blood,

Or toil for her; that nought for him remains
But, as a Roman ought, to meet his end.
Heaven opens to me now a splendid path;
I now can close my latter days with glory:
It cannot be—I know, I know too well
The hearts of Romans. Every one whose birth
Gave him with me to breathe one common air
That fans the Capitol, from Regulus
Will not in thought dissent. I know that each
Applauds me in his heart with generous envy;
That midst th' emotions, by a tender feeling
Unwarily betray'd, he breathes to Heaven
His ardent vows for fortitude like mine.
No more of weakness then, but cast to earth
Those ill-tim'd weapons. O! delay no longer
The triumph I have sought. My friends, my children,
My fellow-citizens! I, as a friend,
Entreat of each; as citizen exhort you,
And as a father let me now command.'

Lastly; when, against the most urgent solicitations of the senate, and the cries of the people, he resolves to depart, he says—

'Romans, farewell! and let our parting now
Be worthy of us. Thanks to Heaven! I leave you,
And leave you Romans. Ah! preserve unsullied
That mighty name, and be the arbiters
Of human kind, till all the world become,
By your example, Romans. Guardian Gods!
That watch this happy land; protecting Powers
Of great Æneas' offspring! I intrust
To you this race of heroes. Still defend
This soil, these dwellings, these paternal walls.
O! grant that valour, glory, constancy,
Justice and truth may ever here reside;
And should some evil star, with adverse beams
E'er threat the Capitol, see, mighty Gods!
See Regulus—let Regulus alone
Be made your victim, and the wrath of Heaven
Be all consum'd on my devoted head:
Let Rome unhurt—but why those tears—
——Farewell!'

Each of these volumes is decorated ~~with~~ a frontispiece, representing a principal scene in one of the dramas.

Dr. B...y.

ART.

ART. XIII. *A Practical Guide to Thorough-Bass*, written by A. F. C. Kollmann, Organist of His Majesty's German Chapel, at St. James's. Folio. 10s. 6d. To be had at all the Music Shops. 1801.

WE have already announced two masterly works on the subject of music, by this ingenious author *. They contained well-digested rules for composing music; and the present treatise gives instructions for the practice of harmony, or the art of accompanying musical compositions in general, under the title of *Thorough-Bass*.

Part I. *Introduction*, and *Chap.* I. concerning *the Scale*, are concise, and the definitions accurate and clear; till we come to a specimen of *Enarmonic*, at p. 2. It appears necessary for every theorist to say something about this long lost *genus*: but *Enarmonic*, and quarter tones on our scales and keyed-instruments, are all imaginary; and every effect of this example, and of all the examples which we have seen, has been produced by *l'equivoque* and extraneous modulation. Whoever talks of *Enarmonic* has a different idea of it from his neighbour. Rameau has bestowed many words on the subject: but those who pretend to understand the Greek writers on that genus, in Meibomius, say that Rameau knew nothing of the matter, and that his Enarmonic is no Enarmonic at all. It is ever so when we pretend to reason without fixed principles. "What can we reason but from what we know?" and that we are ignorant of the Enarmonic melody of the antients is as certain, as that we have no quarter tones by which it could be produced in our scales and instruments.

Chap. II. *Of Intervals.* These are clearly described, and rendered visible by notation.

Chap. III. *Of Chords in general.* Prohibition of 5ths and 8ths in succession. 'Discords never to be doubled.' The 7th and 9th certainly cannot, as they must be resolved by descending one degree: but the 2d may be doubled legally and with good effect. The chord of the $\frac{5}{2}$ is best accompanied by the octave of the 2d or the 5th; and Haydn, in his Hymn for the Emperor, has happily passed through the double octave of the bass, carrying a $\frac{6}{4}$, to the 3d of the next descending bass.
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* *An Essay on Musical Harmony*, see N. S. vol. xxi. for 1796; and *An Essay on Practical Musical Composition*, N. S. vol. xxxi. for 1800. In our account of the former of these two works, we have just discovered two typographical errors: p. 28. l. 9. for *connective*, r. consecutive; and p. 30. for Kirnberg*is*, r. Kirnberger.

Of

Of the inversion of Chords in the treble. These are made manifest by notation. Provided that the bass continues firm, or remains the same by iteration, there is no change of chord. When the bass moves by wide intervals, common chords in succession may be played without fear of successive 5ths and 8ths. The danger of violating the rule which prohibits their succession, diatonically, occurs when the bass rises or falls gradually.

At the bottom of p. 8. we have a good example for figuring accidentals: but at the top of this page, we think, the author introduces his young readers to *anomalous* chords too soon. Those that are mentioned here are well explained, and denominated passing-notes: yet before regular and simple harmony has been defined, exceptions and licences should be kept back.

The whole of page 9. is good, and not only clear and unexceptionable, but contains what a student would do well to adopt. The first example in notes should, perhaps, have been barred in pairs; to shew that a whole line of such crude chords was not given as good music, but that any two such chords, so figured, may be used.

The difficulties and crudities of pp. 10. and 11., it is to be feared, would disgust a young player with a nice ear, and make him hate music as long as he lived. These *anomalies*, on which Mr. K. dwells so long, whenever used otherwise than as transient and passing-notes of taste, are, to our ears, detestable. The ♯♮ in the treble, against the D𝄪 in the base, as at pp. 13 and 17, must always be as offensive to young ears, undepraved, as any thing that is *nasty* is to the palate. There are filthy lights and sounds, as well as tastes. The bass at § 4 would frighten a young musician by its aukward intervals.

The examples of $\frac{6}{4}$ are good exercises for the hand, though not pleasant to the ear; and such a series of fourths and sixths is not likely to be wanted.

The *notes* at p. 12. are clear, though perhaps the text may be found a little embarrassed:—but it is the business of *notes* to illustrate the *text;* and Mr. Kollmann's musical notes are in general so accurate and clear, that they almost preclude the necessity of reading the text. If any thing in his method and manner of writing should be found objectionable, it would be his too numerous *references*; which take up a great part of each page, and occupy much time in turning to them; occasionally for a few words only. It would be better, perhaps, that

that a rule should be finished at once, than divided and subdivided into so many numbers, sections, &c.

In treating of the 7th, its accompaniment, preparation, resolution, and inversions, no notice is taken of its being allowable to accompany it with the octave, as well as 3d and 5th. Besides enriching the harmony, its convenience to the hand, in combining the chords is such, that in a series of 7ths accompanied by 4 parts, two are retained, and only two are to be changed, in each bass. Rameau, in his *Code de Musique*, (the last work which he published, 1760,) calls this *la méchanique des doigts*, the mechanical arrangement of the fingers. By the addition of the octave to the chord, it makes the rule for it short; 'the 7th is added to the common chord.'

In examples of chords of the $\frac{6}{5}$ in succession, the 8ths are wanted as much as in a series of 7ths, of which the chords of $\frac{6}{5}$ are the inversion. The last three examples of *page* 16, *b*, *c*, *d*, are good, and uncommon.—If a fundamental bass were given to the example of thirds and fourths, at the bottom of p. 17, it would shew whence the chord is derived, and the use of accompanying the 7th with an 8th.

The examples at p. 18. are all good for practice; the 3d example is very good in theory, and pleasant to the ear; and in the last way of figuring the chord of the $\frac{4}{3}$, the author has given 4 notes, as in the 7th, accompanied by the 8th, of which the fundamental is $\frac{7}{G}$.

In a succession of chords of the second, in old masters, the $\frac{4}{2}$ were alway struck in the accented part of a bar, whether in common time of 4 crotchets, or $\frac{4}{2}$. In page 19, all the three examples strike the 2ds on the *un*accented part of a bar.

Chap. VIII. *The suspensions and anticipations*, of which this chapter treats, are but appoggiaturas in the treble or bass, figured; and the ear disputes whether any notice should be taken of appoggiaturas in accompaniment. If the player or singer makes an appoggiatura in a close note, from the 2d or sharp 7th of the key, and the accompanier plays a common chord, the appoggiatura is but the more impressive, and melts into the key-note more agreeably. We apprehend that such full and crowded figuring will not only embarrass the accompanier, but disturb the singer or instrumental performer. It is making a *lesson* of the chords, which will attract more notice than the person accompanied would wish.—At p. 50, to which the author refers, we think that a thorough-bass player has nothing to do with the little notes or appoggiaturas; and

that a singer, who wished to have the taste and expression respected, would receive such assistance with indignation. Accompaniment on keyed instruments was originally meant to enrich the harmony and guide intonation, without noticing or disturbing the melody. In accompanying from a score, indeed, of many parts, when any one of the instruments (the player being absent) has a solo passage, or any peculiar melody worth hearing, it should be picked out, and played instead of chords,—but quietly, to preserve *transparency*. This page (50) is well calculated to shew what effect these appoggiaturas would have, if played; and to account for their effect, if sung, and unnoticed in the chords.—All the advantages to a singer, resulting from their accompaniment, are so well described by Rousseau, in his *Letter upon French Music*, that we shall refer our speculative readers to that excellent piece of musical criticism.

In Chap. X. the author gives some judicious instructions for accompanying *Recitative*, a subject which has been neglected in most books on Thorough-Bass that we have seen. In Recitative, few chords are wanting; none, indeed, that require to be irregularly prepared and resolved; such as the 4th, 9th, $\frac{9}{4}$ $\frac{9}{7}$, &c. The chief that are required, besides the common chord, are the 6th, $\frac{6}{5}$, 7, $\frac{4}{2}$, and $\frac{7}{2}$.—The references in p. 30. to Chap. VII. will be very troublesome to the student, who must turn backwards and forwards for almost every note. The *Règle de l'Octave* would have saved much trouble, by telling on what intervals or sounds of the ascending and descending scales, in each key, certain figures and chords are wanted.

Page 33, in which "Alps on Alps arise," will be styled the *cramming* page. All the discords of *suspension* and *supposition*, heaped on each other, can never be necessary in accompaniment. In composing for many parts, it would be useful to know what *may* be done: but to crowd the hand, and to fatigue the eye and ear, with such a crash of discords, will be downright jargon, and will have all the effect of a person playing with his elbows. "It is excellent (says Shakspeare)

> "To have a giant's strength; but tyrannous
> To use it like a giant."

Rameau's double discords, by suspension, are given before the single. We look in vain for examples of the 4th and 9th, with their simple accompaniments of $\frac{8}{5}$ and $\frac{5}{3}$. A single 4th is just mentioned at p. 23. when the signatures 4 3 are said to denote two chords: but what those chords are, we are not

told. Yet this appears to have been requisite before the chord of the 11th was described, which is but the chord of the $\frac{7}{2}$, $\frac{7}{4}$, $\frac{7}{4}$, $\frac{7}{2}$ or $\frac{7}{4}$; which is simply expressed by any of these signatures, and answers the purpose of chord of the 11th or 13th. At p. 58, we have single 4ths: but they are almost all unprepared.

Perhaps, new harmonies should not be introduced in accompanying old music. Corelli, Geminiani, and Handel, by a 4th and 9th, meant nothing more than that the 4th in the triad should be taken instead of the 3d, and the 9th instead of the 8th: but the Rameau school gives the 9th with the 4th, and the 7th with the 9th. This method disguises, and, we think, deforms old compositions; of which the simplicity is now become their greatest beauty and rarity.

The enumeration of chords by supposition, which Mr. K. has given at p. 33, will probably serve as a beacon to young musicians; and warn them not to meddle with them, in accompanying a single verse or instrument.

We find no rules nor examples of the simple 2d, as prepared and resolved in the bass, before ornaments, appoggiaturas, notes of taste, and double and triple discords are considered. We think that simple discords, in the manner used by old masters, as 4 3, 9 8, $\frac{4}{2}$ should be explained by the tutor, and learned by the student, before refinements are discussed. Most of the anomalies, concerning which Mr. K. has lavished his science, are but false relations, and should be touched as tenderly as a sharp against a natural of the same name. Em. Bach and Haydn have done this without offence: but as soon as clumsy imitators handle such dangerous tools, they are sure of inflicting a wound on the ears of all around them.

At the end of the work, we meet with fragments of movements by six celebrated authors: Em. Bach, Handel, Corelli, Geminiani, Rameau, and Tartini, as figured by themselves, with some explanations under the notes. These will be excellent studies for young practitioners in Thorough-Bass; and we may venture to recommend the whole work as constructed on sound principles of counterpoint, replete with useful rules and precepts of accompaniment, and truly meriting the attention of students in practical harmony.

Dr. B....y.

Art. XIV. *Calmet's Dictionary of the Bible*, &c. &c. Parts VIII. to XXI. inclusive *. 4to. 5s. each. Taylor, Hatton-Garden.

PARTICULAR circumstances have delayed, much longer than we wished, our farther notice of this laborious and important publication. It proceeds with rapidity, yet, we believe, with attention and accuracy; and it seems to obtain that success which, from what observation we have made, it certainly merits. It cannot be expected that we should enter into a critical examination of a work so extensive, so multifarious, and which is not yet arrived at its conclusion: but we must inform our readers that it is a performance which abounds with entertainment and information, separate from its more direct intention of elucidating the Scriptures, and advancing biblical knowlege: in which latter respect it is likely to prove peculiarly useful. The dictionary of Calmet has itself undergone emendations, remarks, and omissions, inclosed in crotchets, which we presume are the work of the editor: but its value is still more increased by the collections which occur at the end of each part, under the name of *Fragments*. Here are stores of erudition, valuable instruction, and agreeable amusement, compiled from numerous writings and authors; together with many reflections and observations suggested by the editor himself, or those who are connected with him.

The attempt, in No. CLI, to vindicate the Prophet Daniel, or rather to illustrate his *Hieroglyphic animals*, by the figures which Le Bruyn has copied from the ruins of Persepolis, is very ingenious;—'the ideas (says our author) are remarkably coincident; they differ but as the language of sculpture differs from that of poetry.' He adds; 'such instances should be well understood and maturely weighed, before we deprive Daniel of the station he occupies in our sacred books.'—In the foregoing article, No. CL, we observe learned and curious criticisms, which apparently contribute to lessen the difficulties attending the account of Nebuchadnezzar's *golden image*. The subject of No. CXLV. is *Dagon and Dergetos*, half fish, half human, images or heathen deities, in whose form and name some have supposed (and Mr. Bryant in particular) that there is an allusion to the preservation of Noah in the Ark. For the skilful and erudite manner in which this conjecture is here supported, we must refer to the work itself: but we cannot omit to notice the application that is made of these reasonings to the famed history of Jonah. With great modesty, several questions are proposed; one of the principal of which

* See M. R. vol. xxiii. N. S. p. 392, and vol. xxvi. p. 451.

is

is whether the Hebrew *Dag*, or the Greek *Ketos*, might not merely signify a great *sea fish*, but also a sea-vessel, float, or raft.—'This history, as it stands, (says the writer,) has always given offence to most considerate readers, and it has been the occasion of ridicule to too many unadvised *half thinkers;* it has even been called by some, "a mill-stone around the neck of Christianity:"—I therefore submit *these* hints as what I esteem a duty, since every new idea on the subject is entitled to some attention; and since this investigation may lead some more fortunate writer to the complete developement of the history.'—From all that is here said on this point, the inference drawn is:—'Should not this subject be a strong and striking admonition to *free-thinkers*, not to ridicule Scripture-histories, though they may *to us* seem unnatural or uncouth, since their perverted appearence arises from that of the medium through which they are seen, (I mean *our* imperfect acquaintance with the terms used to describe them, and the relations to which they are allied,) and not from any original misrepresentations in the histories themselves.'

We shall now present the reader with some more adequate specimens of these Fragments:

'No. CXLI. *Extermination of the Jews by Ahasuerus.* There is something so entirely different from the customs of European civilization, in the conduct of Haman and Ahasuerus, in respect to their proposed destruction of the Jewish people, *Esther*, chap. iii. that the mind of the reader, when perusing it, is alarmed into hesitation, if not into incredulity. And indeed, it seems to be barely credible, that a king should admit of such a massacre of his subjects,—a whole nation cut off at one stroke! However, that such a proposal might be made antiently, is attested by a similar proposal made in later times, which narrowly escaped from witnessing a catastrophe of the same nature. M. De Peysonnel, in delineating the character of the celebrated Hassan Pacha, who in the war of 1770, between Russia and Turkey, became eminent as a seaman, says of him, "He preserved the Greeks, *when it was deliberated in the council*, (of the Grand Signior) *to exterminate them intirely*, as a punishment for their defection, [i. e. some of them] and to prevent their future rebellion: *he obtained for them a general amnesty*, which he took care should be faithfully observed, and this brought back a great number of emigrants, and prevented the total desertion of that numerous class of subjects, which an unseasonable rigour would have occasioned; and which must have depopulated the provinces, rendered a great part of the country uncultivated, and deprived the fleet of a nursery of sailors." *Remarks on Baron de Tott*, page 90. Political evils these, which, nevertheless, would not have preserved the Greeks, without the personal influence of the admiral,—as the consideration of similar evils could not restrain the anger of Haman, and the misled confidential caprice of Ahasuerus.—N. B. This account has lately been confirmed by Mr. Elton of Smyrna.'—

'No. CLXXVIII. *Of Hay, not made in the East.*—There is a gross impropriety in our version of *Proverbs*, xxvii. 25. *The Hay appeareth, and the tender* grass *sheweth itself, and herbs of the mountains are gathered.* Now, certainly, if the *tender grass* is but just beginning to shew itself, the hay, which is grass cut and dried after it has arrived at maturity, ought by no means to be associated with it, still less ought it to be placed *before* it. And this leads me to notice, that none of the dictionaries, &c. which I have seen, seem to me to give the accurate import of this word, which I apprehend means, the first shoots, the rising—just budding—spires of grass. So in the present passage (נלה חציד) the *tender risings of the grass are in motion, and the buddings of grass* (grass in its early state), as is the peculiar import of (דשא) *appear, and the tufts of grass*, proceeding from the same root, *collect themselves* together, and, by their union, begin *to* clothe *the mountain* tops with a pleasing verdure. Surely, the beautiful progress of vegetation, as described in this passage, must appear to us too poetical to be lost; but what must it be to an eastern beholder! to one who had lately witnessed all-surrounding sterility! a grassless waste!'

Among many other remarks, the critic refers to *Isaiah*, xv. 6, and then adds,

'Is it not unhappy that in the only two places of the Old Testament, where our translators have used the word *hay*, it should be necessary to substitute a word of a directly contrary meaning, in order to accommodate the true rendering of the passages, to the native (eastern) ideas of their authors?'

In the foregoing number, instances are given, (as had also been done by Mr. Harmer,) in which *mowings* should have been rendered *feedings*; *mowen* grass, grass that has been *fed off*; and the word *mower, carrier.*

'No. CC. *Progress of Christianity compared with that of Mahometanism.* "The progress of Christianity was, 120 at the ascension, *Acts*, i. 15, soon after, 3000, *Ch.* ii. 41, then 5000, and in little less than two years after the ascension, to great multitudes at Jerusalem only.—Mahomet was three years silently occupied in making 14 converts, and they of his own family; and proceeded so slowly at Mecca that in the seventh year, only 83 men and 18 women retired to Ethiopia, and he had no established religion at Mecca to contend with." Gibbon, Hist. Rom. Empire, ix. 244. The reader will make his own reflections on the above. There are few subjects more remarkable than that of the rapid spread of Christianity; yet because it lies beyond the limits of New Testament history, we are less acquainted with it than we ought to be. Nevertheless, the evidence arising from it, is of the most striking and extraordinary nature, since this religion not only made converts among those who had few or no religious rites, but among those whose ritual was supported by law, had been transmitted down from a long line of ancestry, and seemed, in all human appearance, firmly fixed, as on the most solid rock, if it had been estimated immediately before that system was to

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be offered to its professors, which at length was to triumph over it. In this view of the subject, the reception of the gospel by *Dionysius* and *Damaris* is a more effectual proof of its value and estimation, than the indifference of the whole senate of the Areopagus is to the contrary. For this seems at least to be certain, that scarcely any body would exchange an old, and general, and hereditary religion for a new one, unless that which was offered to them was so excellent that its attractions were irresistable, or their own was so unworthy that conscience was glad to get rid of the burden it occasioned by its imperfections, not to say its iniquities. Now when both these causes operate together, as in the case of Christianity, when the religion proposed is insuperably recommended by its benefits, spiritual benefits, and the idolatry of the countries was debased, not merely by its superstitions, but by its vileness, we may hope that Religion's course would be rapid, and glorious, its effects beneficial and salutary, and at length its triumph complete and lasting—without the power of the sword, the terror of conquest, or the prejudices of human nature, and unassisted by the mazes of policy, or the intrigues of patronage. In this let the cross triumph over the crescent!'

The adjoining number, on '*Judaical Memoranda, now extant*,' is introduced by a dialogue: 'it is of little moment (says the author), who were the parties in the following conversation, the application of principles adopted in it is what must be its recommendation.'—Our notice of it can be but short.—After some sensible remarks advanced by A, concerning the utility of antient coins or medals for the assistance and support of history, B sarcastically replies;—'to be sure—all coins are genuine—antiquaries are never deceived—they never read on a coin what is not there—they never read *wrong* a *right* inscription, nor draw false inferences from a true representation:—We have never heard of manufactories of ancient coins, in modern times—at Florence—at Pisa—at—' Here A interrupts his friend, and calmly answers;

'I admit, for argument sake, all you are pleased to insinuate; but what think you of the *Arch of Titus*, still extant at Rome?—say that books may be made, or interpolated, or misunderstood; say that coins and medals may be fabricated, at little expence, though certainly, in fact, at an expence which no probable sale could justify; but this is a building of great expence, of undoubted antiquity, and of unquestionable reference to the prince whose name it bears: yet this edifice speaks the same language as the books and the medals. Vespasian and Titus triumphed over Jerusalem; it was not an ovation, it was a triumph they celebrated, and to commemorate the triumph, the arch was erected, and still exists; it still bears the heathenish inscription *Divo Vespasiano Divo Tito*; it still proclaims the elegance of the art which composed and executed it; it has no suspicious marks of the gothic degeneracy, so predominant in later ages; and we know too, that had later ages constructed it, they would have sought other *Divo*'s than Vespasian

or Titus, and *Divo Antonio*, or *Romoaldo*, names equally barbarous and obscure, would have superseded the memorials of "the delight of human kind."—Since then the conquest of Judea is the subject of this triumphal structure, that conquest was of considerable magnitude; the contention was against a people warlike at least; of ability to contend with Rome itself, all-powerful as that empire was at the time: and this building proves, not merely the existence of the Jewish polity and people, but their consequence, their obstinate resistance, the time of their destruction, their religious implements, and the dissolution of their constitution, civil and religious. Under this view of it, let us acknowlege the kindness of Providence, which has preserved such a monument to our own times, and has thereby furnished an indubitable and unequivocal proof of the fulfilment of those prophecies which foretold these events, and of the veracity of those histories which record them.'

Whatever acknowlegement is made (for which there is certainly too much reason) of the frauds and impositions that have been practised in medallic pursuits, yet several coins and medals are here produced, as tending to corroborate or illustrate the Jewish history and the accounts of Scripture.

One additional specimen may be acceptable to many of our readers; we have selected it chiefly because it is short; most others being too extensive for our insertion:

'No. CLXVIII. *Emphatic reduplication of words.* 'Sir John Chardin translating a Persian letter, renders thus,—"To whom I wish that all the world may pay homage,"—but says, "In the Persian it is, that all souls may serve his name, his name.—Repetition is a figure very frequent in the Oriental languages, and questionless borrowed from the sacred language, of which there are a thousand examples in the original bibles, as *Psalm* lxviii. 12. They *are fled;* they *are fled;* that is, they are absolutely fled. Psalm lxxvii. 5. *the man, the man*, that is, the perfect man."—(1) I am not so sure of the exactness of Sir John's second instance, as I am of the general justice of his remark, that the duplicate form of words is very frequent in Scripture, because I observe that in the Psalm quoted there is a *vau* placed between the words; a man, *and* a man; "of Sion it shall be said, 'a man *and* a man,' (i. e. a great many men) was born in her." But, in *Isaiah*, xxvi. 3, we have, "Thou wilt keep in peace, peace, because he trusteth in thee;" i. e. in perfect peace: and so elsewhere often. (2) I doubt whether duplication of words be borrowed from the sacred language: I rather think it an eastern phraseology intirely independent: and the approaches to it, even when the words are not precisely repeated, and the duplicate form of verbs, becoming nouns, &c. are always esteemed of the same emphatic nature, importing intensity, continuance, &c. &c. (3) The writer wishes that all souls may serve the *name* of the king of Persia; this will remind the reader of the great attention paid to the *name* of God in Scripture, of the commands, to venerate, glorify, honour, &c. the Divine *name;* but it seems here to imply majesty, power,

power, dignity. Are not the words of our Lord to be taken in the same import? "Father keep through thine own name;"—power,—dignity:—"I have manifested thy name"—power,—dignity: so the passages, "that *in* the name - power—dignity—of Jesus, every knee should bow: God set Christ at his own right hand, far above all principality, and power, and dominion, and every name that is named, &c. so that the word, *name* seems to include not merely the person, but the acknowledged and well-known dignity, honour, glory, sovereignty, of the person to whom it is referred.'

These are pertinent remarks. *Psalm* lxviii. 12. is properly rendered in our present English version, *did flee* apace. The objection to Chardin's translation of the next extract appears to be very just; and that which is here offered seems to us to be consistent with the truth.

The preceding quotations will, we hope, be sufficient to furnish those who have not perused this work, with a proper idea of its nature and design; and we presume that the reader will hence form a favourable opinion of its utility and value. As far as we have observed, the editor is well-disposed to treat with candor and liberality the varying speculative sentiments which Christians may embrace, or the different denominations into which they may be distinguished. Marks of discernment and of attention also present themselves to notice; and we have not perceived that tendency to what is cabbalistical or mystical, to which writers are sometimes led by oriental researches. Mere conjectures are often very unsatisfactory; and yet, as is here properly suggested, they may lead to farther thought by which truth may be assisted. *Etymologies* afford but a slender and precarious basis on which to build any important conclusions;—yet etymologies have had and may have their use: but they require profound learning, a cool judgment, and skilful and cautious application, to effect any valuable purpose. The writers to whom the editor appeals are very numerous; and we cannot doubt of his availing himself of every auxiliary. We are therefore satisfied, for instance, though we have not observed it, that he has allotted, or that he will allot when treating concerning *Mary* of Magdala, and also of the *seven brethren* mentioned in the second and suspicious book of the Maccabees, a particular regard to what has been advanced by the very learned and exact Dr. Lardner.

The *Fragments* are divided into centuries. At the entrance on the *Third*, we meet with a preface, in which, after acknowlegements of the favourable reception which this work has obtained, we are told that this part of it will still be continued, as a separate publication; and we are also informed of another production which is likely to succeed the present: *viz.*

viz. A connection of sacred and profane history during the whole of the Scripture period. The excellent performance of Dr. Prideaux is mentioned with respect: but it is truly observed that it begins too late and ends too soon, to be completely satisfactory; no doubt it will admit of considerable improvements; it is to be the basis of the present work,—together also, we conclude, with Shuckford, who begins his history from the Creation, but (as is here added) did not unite it with that of Prideaux.—'On the whole' says this editor, 'we presume to think, that after the explanation of Scripture words and phrases given in the *Dictionary*; of Scripture customs and manners given in the *Fragments*; and of Scripture events and their connections given in the *History*; a considerable progress will be made toward that elucidation of Scripture, which we have had at heart above these twenty-two years. We have advanced our labours thus far under the protection of Providence, and to that same protection we commit the disposal of their remainder.'

Here for the present we must finish our account of this publication: but not without expressing our hope that it will not be long before we are able to return to a farther view of these interesting inquiries. Some additional numbers have lately reached us.

Hi.

ART. XV. *Memoir of a Campaign with the Ottoman Army in Egypt*, from February to July 1800: Containing a Description of the Turkish Army—the Journal of its March from Syria to Egypt—and on the Treaty of El-Arish, with an Account of the Events which followed it. By Mr. J. P. Morier, Private Secretary to his Excellency the Earl of Elgin. 8vo. 4s. stitched. Debrett. 1801.

WE believe that it is the general opinion throughout Europe, that the French would ultimately have retained their conquest of Egypt, if they had not been opposed by British troops. If any doubt, however, remains on this subject, it must be completely dissipated by the perusal of the pamphlet before us; whence it is evident that the Ottoman army under the Grand Vizier was by no means adequate to cope with the French veterans. What a wretched picture does this army make in the memoir of Mr. Morier! who has, no doubt, delineated it with accuracy, having witnessed its confusion and insubordination, when sent by Lord Elgin from Constantinople to join the Grand Vizier at El-Arish, and to accompany the Turkish expedition in its march to Egypt. The fruit of his observations is here amusingly detailed. He gives a description of the Turkish army, including the different troops of which it is composed, (viz.

Janissaries,

Janissaries, *Arnauts*, *Lesghis*, and *Volunteers*, or religious enthusiasts, who follow the standard of Mahomet,) its discipline, or rather want of it—the manner of encamping—its march—and the difficulty of ascertaining its real number. He thus describes the camp as it first presented itself to his view :

'The view of the camp the morning after my arrival at El-Arish, was to me a very singular sight, as I believe it was original in its kind. The ground upon which it stood was irregular, and a perfect desert of white sand, with no other signs of vegetation than a few date trees, which stood in a cluster at a small distance. The tents, which are of different colours and shapes, were irregularly strewed over a space of ground several miles in circuit, and every thing that moved was conspicuous to the eye, from the white ground of the landscape. The whole resembled a large fair; a number of the soldiers who serve without pay carry on a traffic by which they subsist; there are, besides, tradesmen of all descriptions who follow the camp; some keep coffee-houses, which are distinguished by a red flag; others are horse-dealers; and a number of public cryers are constantly employed in describing to the multitude things lost, or selling divers articles at auction. This scene of confusion is certainly more easily conceived than told; but a very ingenious definition of it was given by a Turk, who was asked to describe their manner of encampment. "Thus," said he, pulling from his pocket a handful of paras *, and throwing them carelessly on the table.

'To this state of disorder they join a stupid sense of security, which may at all times expose a very large force to be destroyed by an inferior. None of the precautions that are thought necessary to prevent surprise in armies much better able to withstand a sudden attack, are even thought of in a Turkish army. The moment at which I landed at El-Arish presented me with a most remarkable instance of this state of insecurity. It was late at night; I walked through the midst of the camp without being once challenged; indeed, I do not remember meeting with a human creature: the only signs that indicated the abode of man were the tents, and about them horses, camels, and asses feeding. The stillness which reigned reminded me of the wandering but peaceful lives of our forefathers, rather than of the army of a despot moving to conquest. I might have been a spy, or an incendiary; and I should have escaped with impunity.'

Mr. Morier is of opinion that discipline would make the Turkish troops formidable: but in their present state they must be considered as a disgrace to the name of soldier, and even to human nature.—Their manner of living is as simple as their conduct is irregular:

'A loaf of bread, with an onion, is what many of them have always lived upon; rice is a luxury, and meat a dainty to them. With this abstemious diet they are strangers to many of our diseases, and the hardships of a camp life are habitual to them: because, from

'* A small silver coin.'

their

their infancy, they have slept upon the ground and in the open air. Discipline would certainly make men who are possessed of such natural advantages very formidable; whereas, from a want of it, they are despicable enemies. With disciplined troops there exists a point of union, which, in time of danger, inspires confidence; but every individual Turkish soldier imagines himself opposed singly to the enemy's army; he feels the impossibility of resisting it, and thinks it but reasonable that he should retire. Instead of that *amor patriæ*, that point of honour, that attachment to a chief which often stimulates European armies to perform the greatest feats of valour, a principle of self-interest seems to pervade all ranks; and this is carried so far, that I have seen the heads of their own companions displayed before the Vizier at the battle of Heliopolis, merely to receive the reward attached to every man who brings the head of an enemy.

'A Turkish army may well be compared to an armed rabble; with this difference, that instead of being a lawless mob, led away by the impetuosity of passion, or by the impulse of the moment, the power of a chief may keep up a certain degree of subordination, which, however, goes only as far as he is possessed of more or less energy of character, and often will not prevent disorders, such as the plundering of villages, and quarrels between whole corps of the same army. Among many instances of the spirit of insubordination common to Turkish troops, I had an opportunity of being witness to a scene, when encamped at Catieh, which amused me much. The Albanian troops, to the number of 7000, were encamped near the Grand Vizier; soon after dark they became merry, and, as their only demonstrations of mirth consist in shouting and firing off their muskets with ball, they very soon became troublesome. The Grand Vizier sent an officer to them with orders to desist; but no sooner had those orders reached them, than it was a signal for increasing their fire, which now resembled the file firing of a regiment on field days. The practice of firing with ball for amusement is so common in a Turkish camp, that one is in continual danger of being shot: my tent was pierced in many places; and I once discovered a fellow deliberately levelling his musket at my hat, just time enough to get out of his way.'

The account of their march corresponds with the above representation:

'There is no point of view in which a Turkish army appears to greater disadvantage than when on its march, because it there discloses its weakness in every way. A cryer proclaims over-night the hour of marching next morning. The baggage, camp equipage, &c. move off first, without any guard for protection; every man marches as slow, or as fast, as he pleases. Infantry, cavalry, artillery, all move and mix, forming one immense crowd, which resembles a colony emigrating; and the great number of stragglers who infest the road-sides for the purpose of plunder, makes it very dangerous to leave the crowd.'

In his journal of the march through the desart, Mr. M. notices the *mirage*, which is a most tantalizing phænomenon, where

where water is very scarce or very bad. In his observations on the Arabs, he remarks that 'their prominent *trait* is being false; and that this general principle may be laid down—that very harsh treatment will procure respect, when the least indulgence will have a contrary effect.'

In a note subjoined to the observations on the Arabs, a very heavy charge is brought against Bonaparte; viz. that of ordering, near Joffa, *four thousand five hundred men* to be put to death in cold blood, after they had surrendered themselves prisoners of war, because in this number were found one thousand men who had capitulated at El-Arish, and had broken their engagement by having again taken arms. To this charge is added another, equally reflecting on the Chief Consul's character; viz. that 'when the siege of Acre was raised, and the French army began its march for Egypt, all their wounded and sick were poisoned by order of the General.' As Bonaparte's splendid fortune must excite many champions to vindicate his fame, we take it for granted that these accusations will not be passed over in silence. Such reports may have been propagated as facts in Syria: *sed audi alteram partem.*

The condition of the Turkish army, according to the picture here drawn of it, seems to have fully justified Sir Sidney Smith in effecting the treaty of El-Arish; to which, it is suggested, Kleber would not have acceded but from principles of hatred to Bonaparte. It is intimated that, while he was ignorant of the revolution which placed the latter at the head of the Government of France, Kleber was sincere in his intention of evacuating Egypt: but that, as soon as he was made acquainted with this great event, he disclosed a wish to violate his engagement, and was happy in having a pretext for releasing himself from it. The consequences proved the inability of the Grand Vizier's army to meet the French in sturdy combat; and how necessary it was, since the treaty of El-Arish had not been carried into effect, to send a British force to the banks of the Nile. Though this expedition has terminated gloriously for the English arms, we cannot help lamenting that any reasonable ground was furnished by a British Officer to the French General, for the renewal of hostilities. Whether Kleber was sincere or insincere, the letter of Lord Keith forced him to re-assume a hostile attitude, and must therefore be considered as having been penned in an evil hour. The brilliancy of subsequent victories must not prevent our regretting the blood and treasure which might have been saved, had not the treaty of El-Arish been set aside.

Mo-y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1801.

THE PEACE.

Art. 16. *The Speech of the Honourable Charles James Fox, on the happy Restoration of Peace with France*, with the other Proceedings at the Shakspeare Tavern, on the 10th of October 1801, being the Anniversary of his First Election for the City of Westminster. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

THIS speech, which has been given in all the public prints, is a specimen of that clear and manly eloquence which distinguishes the great orator from whom it proceeded. Having been from the beginning a decided enemy to the war, he thinks that any terms of pacification were preferable to its continuance. He declares his satisfaction in the Peace being *glorious to the French Republic;* and, conceiving the object of the war on our part to be iniquitous, (viz. to force monarchy on France) he rejoices that it has *not* been gained. **Mo.**

Art. 17. *Reflections on the Preliminaries of Peace, between Great Britain and the French Republic.* By Benjamin Flower. 12mo. 4d. Crosby and Co.

These reflections first appeared in the *Cambridge Intelligencer*, of which Mr. Flower is the printer and proprietor; and they are said to be separately published in consequence of the general notice which they excited. Most sincerely does Mr. Flower rejoice at the Peace; and with Mr. Fox he hails it the more cordially because none of the professed objects of the war are gained by it. He cannot, however, suffer the authors and abettors of what he terms an *unjust*, *unnecessary*, and *inglorious* war, nor even the makers of the Peace, to escape without animadversion, and without being reminded of their former language in Parliament. This may be all very fair: but inconsistency is preferable to obstinacy in error; and it is better that Statesmen should sometimes *eat their own words* than *starve* their country.

Mr. F. undertakes distinctly to state what Great Britain and France have gained *by the War*—and *by the Peace:* but in the former enumeration he has omitted our conquest of *Trinidad*, and the immense territory of *Mysore*, in the East Indies; and in the latter he has not counted our having secured the Peace of Ireland, and the certain consolidation of the empire. He considers the terms of the treaty as of secondary moment. It establishes, he thinks, the great principle of liberty; and he wishes that the Peace may be eternal. **Do.**

Art. 18. *A short View of the Preliminaries of Peace;* signed at London, October 1, 1801. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

This sensible writer divides his subject into two parts: in the first of which he inquires, Whether the situation of the country made Peace desirable? and secondly, Whether the conditions on which it has been obtained are such as that situation demanded? He decides both these questions in the affirmative; and his view of the

Peace

Peace is calculated to make all British readers satisfied with it.—He thus condenses into one period the substance of his pamphlet:

'It appears, that we have closed the contest, with a prospect before us favourable in every point of view: we have closed it in possession of more substantial power, both at home, and in the East and West Indies, than we had when we entered into it; we have closed it with the glory of having been triumphant on our favourite element; with the honour of having, by the sacrifice of part of our Conquests, preserved the dominion of our Allies; while France, on the contrary, has purchased Peace at the expence of hers.'

The author also observes that, in imitation of the Romans, we made Peace in the moment of Victory. Mo-y.

Art. 19. *Thoughts on the Preliminary Articles of Peace.* By a Kentish Clergyman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons, &c.

It is the object of this clergyman also to chase the accents of discontent, and to persuade us that 'the proper time for making Peace is arrived; that the object for which we contended is secured, as far as human wisdom can secure it; and that the terms, under all circumstances, are such as a prudent Government ought to accept.' In reviewing the favourable state of things in France, 'Bonaparte's mild wisdom and equitable rule,' and the restoration of the Bishops to their functions, (this is not exactly the fact,) are enumerated; and in speaking of our present ministers, and of the advantages which they possessed above their predecessors, it is asserted that they had 'no errors to retract—no steps reluctantly to measure back.' They would perhaps deem themselves happy, if they could admit this compliment of the Kentish Clergyman.

The author conceives that our population is too small to have allowed us, with prudence, to have retained the whole of our conquests. There is truth in this remark. Ceylon and Trinidad will open an ample field for all our energies. Do

Art. 20. *The Immediate Causes and Remote Consequences of Peace considered.* 8vo. 2s. Thurgood.

To the individuals who instigated and abetted the war, this writer "speaks daggers;" and while he compliments the opposition, he exposes the former intemperance and present inconsistency displayed by the makers of the Peace. Looking to remote consequences, he is disposed to think that the Peace has been 'too long delayed,' to produce the effects which might be wished; and estimating the force of opinion, which "bears a charmed life," invulnerable by bayonets, he not only reprobates the war as a mad crusade, but predicts that it has sown the seeds of evils to which, if the greatest prudence be not exerted, futurity will give birth. The efforts of the Duke of Bedford, the Marquis of Lansdowne, Earl Stanhope, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Erskine, to prevent the war in the first instance, and to bring it to a speedy termination after it had commenced, are detailed with much commendation; and extracts from their speeches are contrasted with the language of Mr. Pitt, Lord Hawkesbury, and the other abettors of the war.—It is indeed to be lamented that so much passion displayed itself in the speeches of the war-ministry; and when

we

we consider the recency of the American war, and the lesson which it might have taught the Parliament, it should seem, as a patriotic Prelate once observed, as "if there were an act in our Statute Book which prohibited our profiting by experience."

The author of this pamphlet deems the issue of the war to be *fortunate* for the liberties of mankind; yet, when he contemplates the power which it has given to France, and the load of taxes which it has imposed on us, he fears that our resources will be gradually drained from us, and that any future war will be to us what the third Punic war was to Carthage.

It is hinted that the retirement of Mr. Pitt behind the curtain was a necessary preparative for Peace, since he had pledged himself to the Bourbons that *he would never make peace with the Republic of France without due consideration of their interests;* and that our financial situation made this measure necessary. 'War was ruin inevitable: Peace leaves a sally-port through which it is possible to escape from destruction.' Such is the consolation here exhibited.—In conclusion, it is recommended to petition the King to call a *Free* Parliament, preparatory to a *Peaceable Reform*, which may prevent dangerous consequences.

Mo-y.

Art. 21. *Address to the Inhabitants of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland*, on the Termination of the War with France. By the Rev. Thomas Robinson, A. M. Vicar of St. Mary's, Leicester. 12mo. 4d. Rivingtons.

Without waiting for a day of public Thanksgiving, Mr. R. here takes the start of his brethren in addressing his parishioners, and the kingdom at large, on the joyful event of the return of Peace. His remarks are serious, sensible, and such as a Christian Minister might be expected, in the discharge of his spiritual function, to offer on the occasion. He expresses, with all plainness, the sentiments and wishes of his heart on the review of the past, on the improvement of the present important event, and on the conduct which as Christians we ought to pursue in future. We recommend the tract to general perusal.

D.

MILITARY.

Art. 22. *The Little Bombardier*, and Pocket Gunner. 12mo. pp. 216. 3s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1801.

A work of this kind has long been a *desideratum* in the Army, particularly in the Ordnance service, and this little volume must therefore be favourably received. The purchaser will also find that it contains much more than the title-page announces; which is no common case in this age of literary deception.

The author has given short and clear instructions on every subject of gun and mortar practice, and of Laboratory compositions: including the whole system of mining, the equipment of fire-ships and bomb-ketches, the dimensions of men of war, and several other naval articles: chiefly contained in a great number of useful tables, which are composed with much skill, and extraordinary accuracy.

We think, however, that the author is too sanguine in his expectations from mines; although he has the authority of a Berlin pub-

lication, of considerable celebrity, and of so late a date as 1799, for supposing that 'a glacis, properly countermined, and every advantage taken of it to retard the besiegers, may, with proper management, prolong a siege at least two months; and if the rest of the works are also countermined, and properly defended, they may add another month to the siege.' P. 155. Suth.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *The Christian's elegant Repository*, containing *Evangelical Philosophy:* a Series of Family Conversations on Natural and Revealed Religion. *Biographical Sketches*, with Memoirs of the Experience of eminent Christians. *Letters, Essays, and Reflections* on important Subjects, doctrinal, practical, and experimental. *The Spiritual Bee:* Anecdotes, Apothegms, Criticisms, and Curiosities of Sacred Literature. *Flowers of Sacred Poetry:* Odes, Hymns, &c. original and Translations. Embellished with six beautiful Engravings. Crown 8vo. pp. 266. 5 s. Boards. Button, &c. 1800.

There are readers who would be delighted with this Repository, and who would think us a graceless set, were we to intimate no more dissatisfaction than is expressed by saying that the poetry is *elegant* in the inverse ratio of its piety. There are other readers who would predict the quality of the contents from the title-page itself, and who would not be very desirous of perusing essays written by Ministers, or others, who could divide subjects into doctrinal, practical, and *experimental.* Now, as we do not wish to offend the former, and cannot in this instance be of much service to the latter, we shall satisfy ourselves with remarking that the contents of this volume are generally serious, but that it is enlivened with some amusing anecdotes. Mo.y.

Art. 24. *The Plainness and innocent Simplicity of the Christian Religion*, with its salutary Effects, compared to the corrupting Nature and dreadful Effects of War: with some Account of the Blessings which attend on a Spirit influenced by Divine Love, producing Peace and good-will to Men; collected by Anthony Benezet. 12mo. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1800.

This small tract, which is offered to us as proceeding from Philadelphia, is acknowleged to be a *collection:* we should have conjectured that a great part of it flowed from the pen of one of the *Friends*, since it is written much in the simple, pious, and rational strain of some of their publications. The latter pages are filled up by accounts, pretty well known, of the sentiments and reflections of several eminent persons on the bed of death. There is probably no occasion to travel to America for the origin of the book: it is however a practical, plain, and useful compilation: it affects some learning, and may perhaps excite a smile when it speaks of one of the early fathers, *Tertullian*, as mentioning the *Quakers.* It presents horrid facts and strong arguments, sufficient to elucidate and establish its subject; and no truth can be more clear than this, that of massacres and wars Christianity is utterly abhorrent. Hi.

POETRY.

Art. 25. *The Genius of France;* or the Consular Vision. A Poem, with Notes. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1801.

By transcribing the Argument, we shall give the reader a complete insight into the nature and tendency of this poem:

'Bonaparte retires from the splendor of the Thuilleries to Malmaison,... His midnight slumbers are broken by the sudden appearance of the Genius of France, who wishes to inform himself of the ultimate designs of the Consul on his Country,... he assumes the character of the Genius of Ambition to prevent detection, and conceal his views.... The Consul, convinced of supernatural agency, and anxious to be informed of his future destiny, exhibits a sketch of his general designs of exalting France... 1, by arms and the revolutionary spirit... 2, by commerce .. 3, by the arts and philosophy; but suspecting the errand of the Genius, from the earnestness with which he inquires into the particular destiny of France, he determines to answer no question, and preserve an invincible silence: this reduces the Genius to the exercise of his power, in order to carry his point. He evokes the shades of Cæsar and Cromwell, and shews him, that to follow their example is to share their fate. But finding him rather envying than dreading their destiny, Monck is summoned, who made *so wise and noble a use of equal power* *. An address is then directed, more particularly to Bonaparte, and the visit closed with some wise and patriotic exhortations.'

Such is the machinery of this piece, which is managed with some poetical dexterity. The shade of Washington is not called up: but the pattern, on which the Chief Consul is directed chiefly to fix his attention, is General Monk. Of the nature of the advice, and of the poetry, a few short examples will suffice:

" Rise, and become what Monck was once before:
Extend to suff'ring loyalty relief;
Pity the aged priest, the wand'ring chief;
All who survive the bloody test of arms—
Toil, want, and exile, worst of human harms:
Think of the hapless millions who have bled,
And spare, oh! spare the living for the dead;—
Turn from thy bloody triumphs, and survey
These realms, to grief and indigence a prey:"—

* * * *

'Be wise.. be just; let martial glory cease;
And, great in war, at last be great in peace.'

* * * *

'Religion's venerable name adore;
Her plunder'd shrine, her fallen fane restore.'

The nocturnal lecture, which the Genius of France is here represented as giving to the Chief Consul, seems in part to have produced its effect. Bonaparte has not shewn himself averse from peace and

* Is not this a singular description of General Monk?

from

from the religion of his country: but he has yet manifested no symptoms of wishing to copy General Monk.—The versification of this poem is in general easy and harmonious, and the notes manifest the author's classical reading. Moy.

Art. 26. *Jacobinism*, a Poem. 4to. 3s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1801. *

It has been with a singular mixture of pleasure and regret that we have perused this production. We discern in it much of the spirit of Dryden, and the mellifluence of Pope: but, while gratified by the luxuriant display of the author's abilities, we could not but lament its unseasonable appearance. Composed (apparently) during the negociations for Peace, and published just before the signature of the Preliminaries, it seems to interrupt and to arraign the national rejoicing for this happy event, by its representation of the people with whom we have just interchanged the olive branch; and who are here attacked in the most embittered Phillippic that has yet thundered against them from the heights of Parnassus, in one of its most furious storms. To enter into particulars, on this now more than delicate occasion, might seem to be no better than opening afresh the WOUNDS OF THE WORLD, that have scarcely ceased to bleed; and we shall therefore close the book with expressing a hope that we may hereafter have the unabated pleasure of meeting the author, emancipated from all alarms on the public account, in some of those charming walks in which he delights to court the not unyielding Muse.

Art. 27. *Verses to the Memory of Joseph Warton, D. D.* late Head Master of Winchester College. By Richard Mant, A. B. Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1800.

This tribute to the memory of the late excellent Dr. Warton, which is offered by one of his pupils, contains many good lines, and exhibits much elegant poetry. We extract a few verses, to dispose our readers for a perusal of the whole:

'Happy old man! for therefore didst thou seek
Ecstatic vision by the haunted stream
Or grove of faery: then thy nightly ear
(As from the wild notes of some airy harp)
Thrill'd with strange music; if the tragic plaints
And sounding lyre of those Athenians old,
Rich-minded poets, fathers of the stage,
Rous'd thee enraptur'd; or the pastoral reed
Of Mantuan Tityrus charm'd; or Dante fierce,
Or more majestic Homer swell'd thy soul,
Or Milton's muse of fire. Nor seldom came
Wild Fancy's priests, with masked pageantry,
And harpings more than mortal: he, whose praise
Is heard by Mulla; and that untaught bard
Of Avon, child of Nature; nor less lov'd,
Though later, he, who rais'd with mystic hand
The fancy-hallow'd pile of chivalry,
Throng'd with bold knights; while Chaucer smil'd to see
From his rich mine of English, undefil'd,
Though all by time obscur'd, a gorgeous dome

* By John Clarke Hubbard, A.M.

On marble pillars rear'd, and golden valves
Majestic, fashion'd by his genuine son.'

The author declares himself, in his Advertisement, 'far from desirous of being considered as a candidate for public applause.' The present performance, however, induces us to think that he might command applause, if he wished for it, by his future exertions. **Fer.**

Art. 28. *The Sorrows of Switzerland.* A Poem. By the Rev. Wm. Lisle Bowles. 4to. 3s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

Having travelled into Switzerland, Mr. Bowles was well acquainted with its sublime and romantic scenery, and with the virtuous simplicity of its inhabitants. His imagination could therefore easily portray the consequences of a French army breaking in on them, and ravaging their country; and these effects he has described in some good and affecting lines. He thus commences with an address to *the Man of Blood:*

'Why art thou come, Man of despair and blood,
To these green vales, and streams o'erhung with wood?
These hills, where far from life's discordant throng,
The lonely goat-maid chaunts her matin song?
This cottag'd glen, where Age in peace reclines,
Sooth'd by the whisper of his native pines;
Where, in the twilight of his closing days,
Upon the glimmering lake he loves to gaze;
And like his life sees on the shadowy flood
The still sweet eve descending? Man of Blood!
Burst not his holy musings. Innocence
And Peace these vales inhabit: hie thee hence
To the waste wilderness, the mournful main,
To caves, where silence and deep darkness reign,
(Where GOD's eye only can the gloom pervade)
And shroud thy visage in their dreariest shade!
Or if these scenes so beauteous may impart
A momentary softness to thine heart,
Let Nature plead—plead for a guiltless land—
Ere yet thou lift the desolating brand;
Ere yet thou bid the peaceful echoes swell
With havock's shouts, and many a mingled yell!
Pause yet a moment! By the white white beard
Of him whose tear-red eyes to Heav'n are rear'd;
By her, who frantick lifts her helpless hand—
By those poor little-ones, that speechless stand—
If thou hast nature in thee, oh, relent!
Nor crush the lowly shed of virtue and content!'

In the beginning of the Second Part, Mr. B. very pathetically describes the motive which induced him some years ago to visit this Alpine region:

'I was a child of sorrow, when I pass'd,
Sweet Country, through your rocky vallies last;
For one whom I had lov'd, whom I had prest
With honest ardent passion to my breast,

Was

Was to another vow'd: I heard the tale,
And to the earth sunk heartless, faint, and pale.
Till that sad hour when every hope was flown,
I thought she liv'd for me, and me alone.
Yet did I not, though pangs my heart must rend,
Prove to thy weakness a sustaining friend?
Did I not bid thee never, never more,
Or think of me or mine; as firm I swore
To cast away the dream, and bury deep,
As in oblivion of the dead man's sleep,
All that once sooth'd; and from the soul to tear
Each longing wish that youth had cherish'd there.
' But when 'twas midnight, to the woods I hied
Despairing, and with frantic anguish cry'd:
" Oh! had relentless death with instant dart
Smitten and snatch'd thee from my bleeding heart;
Through life had niggard fortune bid us pine,
And wither'd with despair my hopes and thine;
Yes, yes, I could have borne it—but to see
Th' accusing tear, and know it falls for me!
O cease the thought—a long and last farewell—
We must forget—nor shall my soul rebell!"
Then to my country's cliffs I bade adieu;
And what my sad heart felt, GOD only knew.
HELVETIA, thy rude scenes, a drooping guest
I sought; and, sorrowing, wish'd a spot of rest.
Through many a mountain-pass, and shaggy vale
I roam'd, an exile, passion-craz'd, and pale.
I saw your clouded heights sublime impend,
I heard your foaming cataracts descend;
And oft the rugged scene my heart endued
With a strange, sad, distemper'd fortitude;
Oft on the lake's green marge I lay reclin'd,
Murm'ring my moody fancies to the wind;
But when some hanging hamlet I survey'd,
Or wood-cot peeping in the shelter'd glade,
A tear perforce would steal; and, as my eye
Fondly reverted to the days gone by,
" How bless'd, (I cry'd) remote from every care
To rest with her we lov'd, forgotten there!"

This work will not detract from the reputation which Mr. B. has already acquired as a poet: but, when we consider the general elegance and force of his numbers, we were surprized occasionally to meet lines which were rendered feeble by such low and flat expressions as—'*the days gone by*'—

' And what my sad heart felt, *God only knew*'—
' Amid the gory tracts *sit down and cry*.'

These defects might easily have been avoided. **Mo-y.**

LAW.

Art. 29. *A Collection of Acts and Records of Parliament, with Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Law and Equity, respecting Tithes.* By Henry Gwillim, Esq. one of his Majesty's Judges of the Supreme Court of Madras. 4 Vols. Royal 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1801.

The public have long been in expectation of this work; and though they will be disappointed by the omission of the treatise on the subject of tithes, which the author had promised, and the appearance of which he has been compelled by circumstances to postpone, yet they will feel obliged by the accurate and faithful manner in which he has executed the other parts of his undertaking. The acts and records of parliament relating to the subject of tithes, and the decisions in the several courts of law and equity, are arranged (with few exceptions) in chronological order.—The value of the publication is considerably augmented by the insertion of many MS. cases, taken at different periods by men who reflect high honour on the profession, and whose names impart distinguished credit to these volumes. S.R.

Art. 30. *A Summary of the Law of Set-off;* with an Appendix of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Law and Equity upon that Subject. By Basil Montague, of Gray's Inn, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 130. 6s. Boards. Butterworth. 1801.

A collection of the cases on the subject of the law of set-off is rather a *desideratum* in the profession; because that title, in the last edition of Bacon's Abridgement, is short and incomplete; and because there is no separate title on this topic in the last edition of Comyns's Digest, though several (but by no means all) of the cases are collected under the title *Pleader* (2. G. 17.) Mr. Montague has divided his work into two books, in the first of which he considers the doctrine in question both at common law and by statute; and the statutes on this subject relate both to set-off in general between all descriptions of persons, and to set-off in the particular cases of bankrupts and of insolvent debtors. The second book treats of set-off in Equity.

The law, as laid down in this treatise, appears to us to be accurate; and the cases seem to be diligently collected, and faithfully analyzed.—This observation, however, we must confine to the first book, since the division, which considers the doctrine of set-off in Equity, is very scanty and incomplete; indeed this objection occurred to the author himself, who says; 'It is, perhaps, scarcely necessary for me to say that I consider this book as incomplete.'—Why, then, did he publish it in that state?

We think that the Appendix, containing all the cases at length, after they had been quoted and the decisions given in the notes, was altogether unnecessary. Surely, Mr. Montague cannot imagine that such a subject *bis repetita placebit.* S.R.

Art. 31. *Historia Placitorum Coronæ.* The History of the Pleas of the Crown, by Sir Matthew Hale, Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench, published from the original MSS. by Sollom Emlyn of Lincoln's

Lincoln's Inn, Esq. with additional Notes and References to modern Cases concerning the Pleas of the Crown, by George Wilson, Serjeant at Law. A New Edition. And an Abridgment of the Statutes relating to Felonies continued to the present Time, with Notes and References by Thomas Dogherty, Esq. of Clifford's Inn. 2 Vols. royal 8vo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Payne, and Butterworth. 1800.

The merit of this production of Chief Justice Hale has been too long known, and its utility to the profession has been too frequently acknowleged, to require at this time any observations from us. Indeed, the circumstance of the House of Commons * having directed the publication of it is alone a sufficient proof of the exalted reputation of the author;—a compliment which we do not recollect to have been paid to any other writer, and a just tribute of praise to the indefatigable and enlightened exertions of this exemplary judge.

We are informed by the present editor, to whose industry and judgment on former occasions we have borne willing testimony †, that the additional notes and references to modern cases, applying to the subject of this work, which were inserted in the margin of the former edition, are placed at the end of each chapter in the present; and an abridgment of those statutes relating to felonies, which have been enacted since the first publication of the work in the year 1739, to the present time, is introduced after the *addenda in notis*, at the end of the first volume, in order to prevent any derangement of the original paging. We have examined, with some attention, the additions introduced by the present editor, which appear to us to be judicious and pertinent; and we think that his labours have increased the value of a most useful and profound work.

S.R.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 32. *A Practical Inquiry into Disordered Respiration*, &c. By Robert Bree, M. D. The Second Edition, corrected. With an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 300. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

We have spoken our opinion fully respecting the first edition of this useful work; (vol. xxxii. p. 66.) and we notice the second only for the purpose of remarking that Dr. Bree has made several judicious retrenchments, which will render the book more acceptable to readers in general, without detracting from the quantity of actual information which it contains. On the opinions and facts, we have nothing new to observe.

Fer.

Art. 33. *The Villager's Friend and Physician*; or a familiar Address on the Preservation of Health, and the Removal of Disease on its first Appearance; supposed to be delivered by a Village-Apothecary. With cursory Observations on the Treatment of Children, on Sobriety, Industry, &c. By James Parkinson. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1800.

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* Vide Journ. Com. Lunæ. 29. die Novemb. 1680.

† Mr. Dogherty was the author of the Crown Circuit Assistant, and the editor of the last edition of the Crown Circuit Companion, noticed in our 30th Vol. p. 456.

Much good advice is offered in this publication; and it is conveyed in a style which is in general well adapted to a village-audience. We therefore recommend it to the attention of our honest neighbours in the country. Per.

Art. 34. *The Chemical Pocket-Book;* or Memoranda Chemica: arranged in a Compendium of Chemistry: with Tables of Attractions, &c. calculated as well for the occasional Reference of the Professional Student, as to supply others with a general Knowlege of Chemistry. By James Parkinson. Second Edition, with the latest Discoveries. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Symonds, &c. 1801.

The first impression of this compendium was accidentally overlooked, among a few other small publications. This new edition is much improved in every respect; and it will be found an useful and convenient book for reference, by readers who have not opportunities of perusing the systematic writers on chemistry. Do.

Art. 35. *The Hospital Pupil;* or an Essay intended to facilitate the Study of Medicine and Surgery. By James Parkinson. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Symonds, &c. 1800.

This essay contains, like Mr. Parkinson's other productions, much plain good sense, and many practical observations, applicable to most of the younger candidates for the honours and emoluments of the profession. Society is deeply interested in this subject; which, in the hands of a master, would be capable of exciting a much more general attention than it seems to command. In the mean time, Mr. Parkinson's treatise may be strongly recommended as a safe and useful guide to parents, who mean to educate their children for the practice of medicine and surgery. Do.

Art. 36. *Clinical Lectures, delivered in the Years* 1765 and 1766. By William Cullen, M. D. &c. Taken in Short-hand by a Gentleman who attended. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Lee and Hurst.

These Lectures cannot fail to excite attention; since, amid all the revolutions which have happened in medical opinions, the name of Cullen must command a high degree of respect. Yet when it is considered that the First Lines of the Practice of Physic, printed long after the date of the present Lectures, contain the author's improved opinions respecting the diseases cursorily treated in this volume, it may rather be regarded as a literary curiosity than as an accession to the stock of actual knowlege. The excellence of Dr. Cullen as a teacher can never be obliterated from the memory of those who had the advantage of hearing him; he knew particularly how to impart an enthusiasm for study and observation, which has contributed to form many eminent practitioners; and the freedom with which he attacked the humoral pathology, then universally established, was a principal cause of that emancipation from the shackles of system, which has given scope to the extensive and spirited improvements of medicine in modern times.

Those who are curious in tracing the progress of opinions may derive considerable amusement from comparing the practice and the comments of Cullen, in the cases here stated, with his matured sentiments, as they are contained in the latest edition of his First Lines.

In

In a case of Dysentery, for example, mentioned in this volume, the professor is made to say that he had avoided purging, to shew his pupils that the cure of the disease did not depend on the evacuation of acrimony. This, Dr. Cullen, within our memory, would undoubtedly have called bad practice.

For the reasons already given, we deem it unnecessary to make any extracts from this volume. **Fer.**

Art. 37. *Nosology; or a Systematic Arrangement of Diseases,* by Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species; with the distinguishing Characters of each, and Outlines of the Systems of Sauvages, Linnæus, Vogel, Sagar, and Macbride. Translated from the Latin of William Cullen, M. D. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons, &c. 1800.

To characterize Dr. Cullen's nosological system, which has been for many years before the faculty, would be a work of some labour and of little necessity. We shall therefore content ourselves with remarking that this translation seems to be executed with fidelity; and that it will convey a very complete idea of the original work, to those professional readers who may want the assistance of an English version. **Do**

Art. 38. *The Edinburgh Practice of Physic and Surgery;* preceded by an Abstract of the Theory of Medicine, and the Nosology of Dr. Cullen; and including upwards of five hundred authentic Formulæ, &c. With four Quarto Plates. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Kearsley. 1800.

This compilation will probably be found serviceable to many country practitioners, who have not leisure to consult a variety of publications, or who want opportunities of procuring new books. It appears to be in general executed with tolerable correctness; though, in some of the articles, we observe that the editor has omitted the mention of recent facts: such, for example, as the efficacy of Digitalis in some cases of Hæmorrhage. Other deficiencies might be pointed out: but we can recommend the book, on the whole, as a safe guide, as far as it goes; and as conveying, in a cheap form, a great diversity of information. **Do**

POLITICS, *&c.*

Art. 39. *A Vindication of the Convention lately concluded between Great Britain and Russia.* In Six Letters addressed to — —. Third Edition. 8vo. 3s. Wright. 1801.

In laying down the law of nature and nations, or universal law, Publicists cannot supersede the necessity of specific conventions and treaties between states: but the principles, which they establish, ought to form the ground-work of these agreements. In the pamphlet before us, it is contended that such has been the case in the convention lately concluded between this country and Russia; every part of which is here ably discussed and vindicated:—but it may be observed that this is only the *English* commentary on that important convention; and that some of its clauses may receive, from an ingenious Russian, Dane, or Swede, a very different construction. We shall

shall not undertake particularly to discuss its merits: but it appears to us to display the moderation of our Government; and to have been been drawn up in such a manner as to maintain, on the part of neutrals, the principles of innocent commerce, while it at the same time affords to belligerent powers that security against illicit supply, which the natural law of warfare always requires. Considering the unrivalled superiority of our navy, and the splendid victory which preceded this convention, it is probable that we might have imposed on the Northern Powers other restrictions: but moderation and equity are always the dictates of the truest wisdom. By inserting unreasonable conditions in treaties and conventions, we gratify our own pride at the expence of the good opinion of surrounding nations; and, in the very act of giving peace, we sow the seeds of future wars. Mo-y.

Art. 40. *A Second Address to the Proprietors of the Bank of England Stock.* By Alexander Allardyce, Esq. M. P. one of the Proprietors of the Bank of England. 4to. 4s. 6d. Richardson. 1801.

Pursuing, with equal intrepidity, the course marked out in his first Address (see M. Rev. vol. xxv. p. 349.) Mr. Allardyce here maintains that 'the affairs of the Bank are not managed as they ought to be; and that the proprietors do not derive such extensive benefits from their concerns in it, as they are by law, by reason, and by justice entitled to.' He is of opinion that the Directors are bound, by the charter, to declare a dividend on the *whole* of the profits of the corporation, for the time being; and that, if this were done, the dividends in a short time would be above 12 per cent. per ann.; and the price of stock above 300 per cent.

This second Address, like the preceding one, is accompanied by a long Appendix, forming two thirds of the pamphlet, and containing a number of interesting and amusing papers, viz. The author's letter to the proprietors, and notice given to the Governor, &c.—The case relative to the Bank of England, submitted to Mr. Mansfield, with this able lawyer's opinion on it.—The demand made in a General Court for the production of Accounts.—Extract from the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons respecting the loan of 1796.—Extract from a list of the names and sums subscribed to the loan of 1797.—Account of the value of exports for five years, ending 5th Jan. 1801.—Amount of Bank notes in circulation—of money advanced by the Bank to Government—of the National Debt,—and on the duties and powers of the Court of Directors, Proprietors, &c. D.o

Art. 41. *Facts explanatory of the instrumental Cause of the present high Prices of Provisions:* formerly communicated in a Letter to George Cherry, Esq. then one of the Commissioners for Victualling the Navy; with Observations thereon. By George Butcher, late Clerk of the Dry Stores, at his Majesty's Victualling Office, Deptford. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Scott.

This is a pointed attack on the Commissioners and subordinate servants of the Victualling Office, from one who has been removed from a situation which he once held in it. Mr. B. represents himself as having been honest and conscientious in the discharge of his duty, and dismissed, disgraced, and nearly ruined on account of this very

honesty. If his representation of facts may be credited, it is possible that the conduct of the Board may have had considerable effect in raising the price of provisions: but experience has taught us, that accounts of transactions by hurt and irritated men must be admitted with caution. To the charges of partiality exhibited against the Victualling Office, in the business of contracts, is subjoined this general remark; that, 'unless some powerful interference from legislative authority shall soon take place in the regulation of the corn-market, to stop the alarming proceedings of monopoly and extortion, we can expect no good effects from the bounty of Providence.' Moy.

Art. 42. *Proposals to Government*, for establishing that System of Regulations most favourable to the Keeping the Price of Corn at what it ought to bear; from the Quantity of Corn grown annually being accurately ascertained; for the best Mode of giving such Assistance to the Cultivators of the Waste Lands, as shall be safest to the Country, and most advantageous to them. With Reflections on the Advantages and Disadvantages of Country Banks; also, on the Mode and Expediency of bringing Gold into Circulation in this Country, equally in Bullion as Coin. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Printed at Gloucester. Sold by Longman in London. 1801.

The *Price of Corn*, *Waste Lands*, and *Country Banks*, have been so repeatedly mentioned as subjects which have a reference to each other, that an author will deem himself juistified in discussing them together.—The first, especially at the present time, is of peculiar interest; but it is easier to lament the evil of high price than to propose an adequate remedy, since it is evidently produced by a combination of causes. A system of regulations is here proposed, to ascertain in every parish the exact quantity of corn grown, by putting the farmers under a kind of excise-law: but we do not perceive how this would check monopoly in the corn-market, or induce the farmer to take a low price when he can obtain a higher.—To facilitate the cultivation of our waste lands, this author recommends that farmers should be assisted by a public loan, (he thinks that it would require throughout Great Britain the sum of 20,800,000l. to be advanced,) and that country bank notes should be employed as the medium.—Lastly; as to bullion, he advises that the Directors of the Bank shall permit the merchants to keep with them a bullion account, with power of transfer to other accounts, of the whole or part; so that bullion may become, to the exchanges and commerce of this cuontry, what bank-money was at Amsterdam. Do

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 43. *Angling in all its Branches reduced to a complete Science:* being the Result of more than forty Years' real Practice and strict Observation; throughout the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland. In 3 Parts. 1st, describing the Counties of England and Wales, and Scotland, in Alphabetical Order; the Rivers and other Waters which they contain; together with those of Ireland; the Fish they produce; &c. &c. 2dly, A full Description of

of the different Kinds of Fish taken by Angling, their Natures, Haunts, &c. &c. 3dly, A List of Artificial Flies (the completest Collection ever yet known) which will take Fish in all Waters: Night Fly fishing, Natural Fly-fishing, &c. &c. The whole forming a Work of real Utility, comprising Objects too numerous to be detailed in a Title page, and of a very different Nature from those insignificant little Pamphlets hitherto published. By Samuel Taylor, Gent. 8vo. pp. 300. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1800.

On the subject of this work, we may say, purloining a little from Dryden,

"Old as we are, for wearying sports unfit,
The pow'r of *Angling* we remember yet;"

and though we cannot wade in the Thames, being forbidden by the *qualified* Sir Robert Rheumatism and Lord Gout, and flog it from Abingdon to Chertsey for trout and salmon, yet we can hobble along its banks, and rove for a perch; or we can sit quietly in a punt and turn the water into blood with barbel, roach, and dace. In our vernal days, when our eyes were as bright and sparkling as the brooks, we, too, could dress an artificial fly, from the living pattern, even to the *estimation of a hair*; and we could throw it, also, with a scientific nicety, within the circumference of a claret glass; to which precision we were brought by a practice in our boyish days, of throwing out our line to its utmost extent on a bowling green, before we were permitted to attack the stream, and lose our flies by the ardour of whipping. This necessary practice was considered by old Nash, the miller of Denham, (the best fly fisher that we ever saw,) as the *Horn Book* of a *King* Fisher.—Now we cannot, indeed, however much it may be our wish, travel far hence, where

—"Through pastoral Stafford
Runs the brawling Trent,"—

but we can mount our *taxed cart*, and accomplish a gentle *meandering* excursion; or, reposing in our great chair, we can see in our "mind's eye" all the extensive prospects of sporting pleasures, which Mr. Samuel Taylor here presents to view.

To come more to the point.—In his preface, Mr. Taylor sings the praises of this diversion, asserts the deficiencies of former treatises on the subject, and proclaims the superiority of his own. His work, he says, 'is all written from real knowlege, so that he thinks he may without vanity justly intitle it, "angling reduced to a complete science;" and the whole is so interspersed with remarks and little pleasing anecdotes, that the reader will be agreeably surprised and entertained.' We must confess that we have met with no such *agreeable surprize*, for these *little pleasing anecdotes* have wholly escaped our observation: but the general merit of the work must be acknowleged; and we shall manifest our opinion of its claims to notice, by descending to particulars in several instances which call for remark.—The descriptions of the counties are brief, and confined almost wholly to the rivers.

P. 18. We are surprized that Mr. Taylor does not mention the Fordytch Trout, so remarkable for their size and colour, and for never having been known to take a Fly. We advise him to make a trip, and try them with all his trout flies; and if he succeeds in catching one, we will allow him to say even more in favor of himself than he has already advanced. Many of them, we believe, have been taken near Canterbury, but not with a Fly.

P. 19. The White Bait, in our judgment, is not the fry of the smelt, but a genus of itself; for we have frequently found these fish full of roe.

Mr. T. has omitted Mawm Taum, so famed for Perch of a great size, and most of them *blind*,—a wonderful circumstance in fish of prey! We believe that the water is in Lancashire.

P. 24. It is not known that a *Lamprey* was ever caught in the Thames: but there are *Lamperns* in great plenty, which have for many years been sold to the Dutch, to bait their hooks for turbot.

P. 29. Mr. T. gives his opinion that, though our pickled salmon is called *Newcastle Salmon*, little or none is cured there, Berwick being the principal source of our supply of this article. We know, however, that great quantities of salmon are pickled at Newcastle.

P. 136. Small Eels, or elvers, in the Thames, are called Shafflings; of which an excellent soup is made at Wandsworth. Mr. Taylor here announces his discovery that eels are *viviparous*, which reflects credit on his industry and sagacity. It has long been fiercely contended that they are *oviparous*: but Mr. T. has laid his opponents, with the young eels, *in the mud.*

The Bleak, or Whiting, (p. 209.) is called by the fishermen on the Thames the *mad* bleak, owing to its running on the surface as if in play: but we believe that this action arises from pain and agony; for on opening them we have found, twisted round their entrails, a long flat worm, (resembling a Tape worm,) which in a short time destroys them, of the colour of pus, and tough.

The directions for procuring and preserving baits (p. 214.) are excellent; as are those for making rods and hair lines; and Mr. T. is evidently an adept at making flies. We apprehend, nevertheless, that his list of artificial flies, though said to be *the completest ever known*, is still deficient; and there is a book by one Bowlker, who lived by angling and making flies, which is worthy of being consulted on this head. No directions are here given for *throwing* the *natural* fly; which is by far more delicate and difficult, than with any artificial *fly* whatever.

Our observations, however, are growing too extensive; and we must conclude with the general remark that this book well deserves the perusal even of an experienced angler;—though, as somebody says in a play,—"*Methinks, the gentleman protests too much.*"

Art. 44. *Narrative of the Life of Sarah Shade, born at Stoke Edith, in Herefordshire*, containing many well authenticated and curious Facts, more particularly during her Voyage to the East Indies, in the New Devonshire Indiaman, in the Year 1769; and in travelling that Country in company with *the Army*, at the Sieges of Pondicherry,

Pondicherry, Valore, Negatapatam, &c. &c. Together with some extraordinary Account of the Ferocity of Tigers, Jackals, Piah Dogs, Vultures, &c. Taken down by some Gentlemen, and published for her Benefit. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard, &c. 1801.

The "simple annals of the poor" may sometimes merit perusal, as well as the more distinguished memoirs and accounts of persons who have moved in higher ranks; and, to the humane and benevolent reader, the story of this humble narrator (a soldier's wife) may prove as interesting as that of some celebrated hero, or the pompous memoirs of a *Cleopatra*.

The varied narrative of this good woman abounds with unadorned but striking details of the accidents and reverses of fortune, to which she seems to have been destined from her earliest years, until the time of her return from India to her native country, and her resting, from foreign toils and troubles, in a quiet lodging room, at No. 5, Little Chesterfield Street, Mary-le-Bon; where she hopes to find some alleviation of her past troubles, and 'relief from those wants occasioned by long illness,' of which the *preface* informs us.

The anecdotes relative to *transactions* in the East Indies, and particularly to the wild animals mentioned in the title, are not altogether unworthy of the notice of readers who are curious with respect to the natural history of that part of the Creation.—The whole recital, we think, wears so much of the semblance of truth, that we do not find ourselves at all disposed to entertain doubts of poor Sarah's veracity.

Art. 45. *Gymnastics for Youth*, or a Practical Guide to healthful and amusing Exercises for the Use of Schools. An Essay towards the necessary Improvement of Education, chiefly as it relates to the Body; freely translated from the German of C. G. Salzmann, &c. Illustrated with Copper-plates. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

This dissertation on the species of exercise proper for childhood and youth may afford considerable instruction to parents and tutors. The directions are judicious; and they are written in a more lively style, and in better English, than most German compilations, or translations from the German. The work is illustrated with several well-designed prints.

We observe nothing, however, that is particularly new in this work, excepting the author's recommendation of funambulism as an exercise. Several of the exercises in use among English schoolboys might have been advised; such as cricket, fives, &c. Every thing which tends to promote the strength, activity, and health of the rising generation, is undoubtedly of the first importance to society.

Fer.

Art. 46. *Remarks on the Character of Richard the Third*, as played by Cooke and Kemble. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Parsons. 1801.

To obviate any suspicion of partiality, this remarker on a case of supposed dramatic competition sets out with a declaration that he has 'no theatrical connexion, and is not so well acquainted with any dramatic

dramatic author or performer, as to speak to him, if he sees him.'—In comparing, however, the difference of *manner* in which the difficult part of *Richard* has lately been performed by Mr. Kemble at Drury-Lane, and by Mr. Cooke (a new actor) at Covent Garden, he appears to have written under the influence of a strong prepossession in favour of the latter: yet he seems to have been an attentive observer of the performances of the rival heroes, (for *as rivals* he considers them,) and to have offered some just criticisms. As *we* have not had the pleasure of seeing these competitors for dramatic pre-eminence, on the occasions here brought into question, we cannot hazard any general opinion on the justice of the praise which is here bestowed on Mr. C., and of the strictures which are passed on the performance of so eminent an actor as Mr. K.

Art. 47. *Kemble and Cooke: or, A critical Review of a Pamphlet published under the Title of "Remarks on the Character of Richard the Third, as played by Cooke and Kemble."* With other critical Remarks on the Performances of these two Gentlemen. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Westley, &c. 1801.

The writer of this *Reply* to the foregoing *Remarks* professes, like his antagonist, to be free from all dramatic connections, &c. &c. but, nevertheless, he seems to be feelingly alive to the freedoms which have been taken with Mr. K.'s theatrical character; and he accordingly treats the remarker with the most sovereign contempt.

Though we can never approve the introduction of personal reflections and harsh epithets in any literary controversy, we must acknowlege the ability with which the present writer has discussed the points in dispute between him and the champion of Mr. C.—He has here, however, given only the *first part* of what he proposes to lay before the public, on the subject of this winter's theatrical campaign.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are indebted to the attention manifested towards us by Mr. Tate, in the transmission of his third and fourth letters: but he must excuse us from entering into an examination of their contents. We do not observe, indeed, that they require any addition to our former remarks. The examination must be complete, and *every* passage must be adduced, before the point can be settled. With regard to Terentianus Maurus, we certainly were not forgetful of him, nor of other writers on this subject.—If Mr. Tate should publish his proposed work, it will in course claim its due notice in our pages: but we really cannot devote time and space to elaborate and protracted epistolary discussions. D.r C.B.

A letter from Mr. Howe has reached us, in which he complains of our having misrepresented the doctrine of his Sermon on the Millenium, (see our Review for September last, p. 103). Had this been the case, we should rejoice, as much as he could do, in an opportunity

opportunity of rectifying it: but the fact is that he has completely misconceived the drift of our strictures; which were not pointed at a figure of speech, or a shade of doctrine, but against the authority adduced by the preacher, and the use which he made of that authority. We undertook not to decide whether the *reign of Christ on earth*, to which he alluded, should be taken literally or figuratively; we meant only to charge him with having introduced an *unnecessary and mystical phrase*, respecting the predicted prevalence of truth and righteousness. *Millenium* is no more a term of scripture than *Trinity*; and we must remind him that his expression—'the reigning of the SAINTS with Christ for a thousand years'—implies rather *selection* than *universality*; rather the distinction of a few by righteousness, than the general diffusion of it through all nations and ranks of men.

Further to manifest our gratitude to Mr. Howe for his long letter, we shall remark that we believe that no one who is enlightened by true criticism and a knowlege of the history of the sacred text, and who is an advocate for Christianity purified from its corruptions, will make the Apocalypse the basis of his scheme of Divinity, or deem it sufficient to establish any separate dogma. A Dr. Slop, in order to support his doctrine of seven Sacraments, might be in raptures with this book; which furnishes him with—seven Spirits of God, —seven candlesticks,—seven vials,—seven wraths,—seven plagues,—and seven thunders: but what could induce Mr. Howe, in the pursuit of the pure and simple doctrine of Jesus of Nazareth, to hunt for it among such grotesque and uncouth mysteries:—in a book which, whatever may be its use, ought not to be employed *ad auctoritatem dogmatum confirmandam.*

May.

Our French Correspondent at Richmond, who signs *A Patriot*, mistakes the nature of our work; which is not a *Magazine*, adapted to the insertion of such communications as that with which he has favoured us. His introduction and recommendation of a particular work, also, throw a suspicious air over his observations, which may in themselves be well founded.

G. H. is informed that the remark, which he wishes to trace, was repeated by us from the author of the work reviewed in the article to which he refers, and who made no reference to the particular source whence *he* borrowed it.

Mr. Roe's work is at present *sub judice*, but we have never seen the other publication which he mentions.

☞ In the Review for October, p. 118. l. 16. for 'generalt one,' r. *general tone.*—P. 187. l. 10. from bott. put a comma instead of a semicolon after '*reputation*,' and dele the comma after '*apathy.*'—P. 204. l. 18. for 'humect,' r. '*humect.*'—P. 205. l. 23. for 'in hands,' r. in *the hands*; and in the next line, dele the quotation comma before *A kind*, &c.

See Corrections in several pages of this number.